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ABSTRACT

These proceedings contain the texts of the following 44 papers: "Adult Development in Midlife, Childless Women" (Rita Keneipp); "Analysis of the Relationship between Cognitive Style (Field Dependence-Field Independence) and Level of Learning" (Eugene Tootle); "Reconceptualizing Adult Education Participation" (Peter Cookson); "Adulthood: Definitions and Perspectives" (Breda Bova and Rebecca Phillips); "Educating Incarcerated Adults" (Rajendra Kumar Srivastava); "Self-Direction: A Clarification of Terms and Causes" (Robert Fellenz); "From Where We Came: A Critical Examination of Selected Historical Literature of Adult Education" (Burton Sisco); "Multiple Legitimate Uses of Research Processes in Adult Education" (James McElhinney); "A Fresh Look at Adult Development: Alternative Paradigms for Research" (Robert Bruce, Sharan Merriam, and Rosemary Caffarella); "Differences between Participants and Non-Participants in a Corrections Education Program" (William Dowling); "Adult Classroom Locus of Control" (Mary Jane Even); "Exporatory Examination of the Educational Delivery System for Adults in Greece" (Marcie Boucouvalas and Iris Drower); "Repertory Grid in Group Oriented Learning Situations" (Dan Pratt and Philip Candy); "Women in Their Thirties: The In-Between Generation" (Rosemary Caffarella and Stanley Freeman); "Development and Validation of an Instrument to Identify Self-Directed Continuing Learners" (Lorys Oddi); "Revolting Soldiers: The Origins of Education in the Armies of World War I" (Roger Boshier); "Microscope or Telescope: The Place of Metaphor in Adult Education Research" (Philip Candy); "Patterns of Persistence and Non-Persistence of Non-Traditionally-Aged Undergraduate Women" (Mary Ann Brenden); "Independent Learning and Reproduction of Inequalities" (Lena Borgstrom and Kjell Rubenson); "Acquisition of Information Resources by Informal Adult Learners" (Elaine McCreary); "Stalking the Elusive BOK in Adult Education" (Thomas Sork); "Changes in Role Identification among Inmate Learners" (Grant Clarke); "Cooperation to Improve Teaching at a Land Grant University" (Gary Conti and Robert Fellenz); "Adult Learning in a Resource Exchange Network" (Virginia Thompson); "Needs Assessment Methodology for Staff and Organizational Development" (Sheila Bohun); "Relevance of Hermeneutics for Research and Practice in Adult Education" (Adele Chene, Michael Collins, and Jean-Pierre Theil); "Study of Adult Education for Black People in Roxbury, Massachusetts 1900-1980" (Carrie Dickens); "Influence of

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adult education RESEARCH conference

Arizona State University
March 22-23-24 1985
Tempe, Arizona

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THE TWENTY-SIXTH ANNUAL

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PURPOSES OF THE ADULT EDUCATION RESEARCH CONFERENCE:

To promote the improvement of research and evaluation in adult education; to foster professional collaboration among persons who promote research, utilize research findings in the field of adult education.

THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

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National Conference in Adult Education Research at Arizona State University, Co-Sponsored by the Department of Higher and Adult Education at the Arizona State University welcome you.

Special thanks to the following for their untiring help: Mr. Ed Scannell, ASU Director of Conferences, Betty Norris, Tessie Scurei of the Conference Bureau. Ms. Joyce Janiga, Adult Education Research Conference Graduate Assistant, Dorla Nelson and Karen Carr, Department secretaries, and to the graduate students who provided housing to visiting graduates attending the conference. Special thanks to the Centennial Committee of the College of Education, and to Dean Robert Stout, College of Education, and Ms. Mary Hayden-John, Executive Coordinator, College of Education. Without their cooperation this Conference would not have been a success. Also thanks to the faculty and students of the department. A special thanks to our Acting Department Chair, Dr. Mark Rossman.

Roger W. Axford
Conference Host

ARIZONA STATE
UNIVERSITY TEMPE, ARIZONA 85287

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
OFFICE OF THE DEAN (602) 965-3306

February 5, 1985

DEAR PROFESSIONAL ADULT EDUCATORS:

It is a pleasure to have such a group of distinguished scholars attending our Centennial Celebration, the 100th Anniversary of Arizona State University. Your National Adult Education Research Conference is very much in keeping with our theme for the Centennial, "EXCELLENCE FOR A NEW CENTURY!"

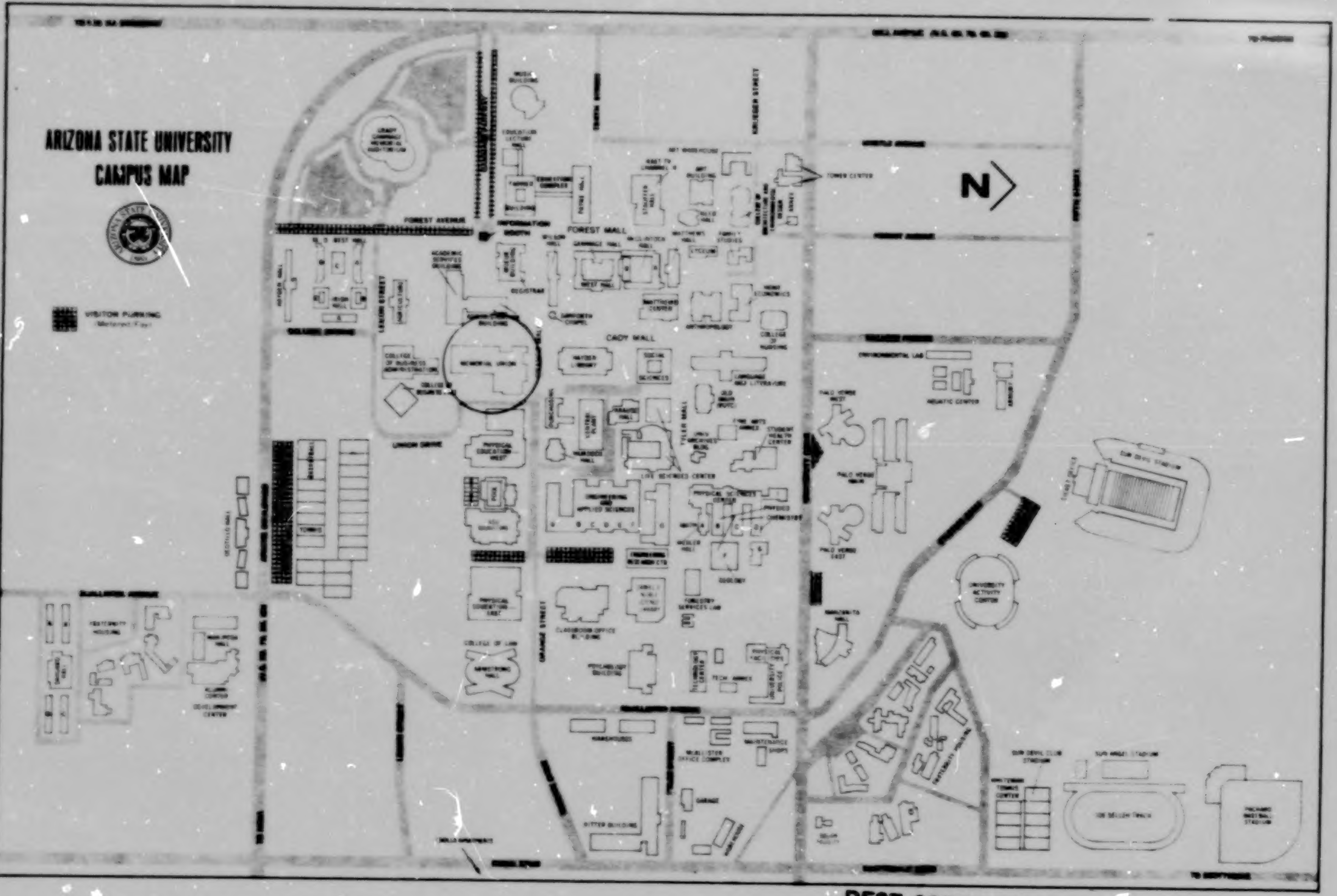
I know that the papers read will enhance the profession of ADULT EDUCATION and of HIGHER EDUCATION. I congratulate you on the publication of the Proceedings, and I hope it has wide distribution. I am proud of our leadership in the field of Adult Education, and congratulate you on choosing ASU for your Conference.

Cordially,

R T Stout

Robert T. Stout
Dean

RTS/lgr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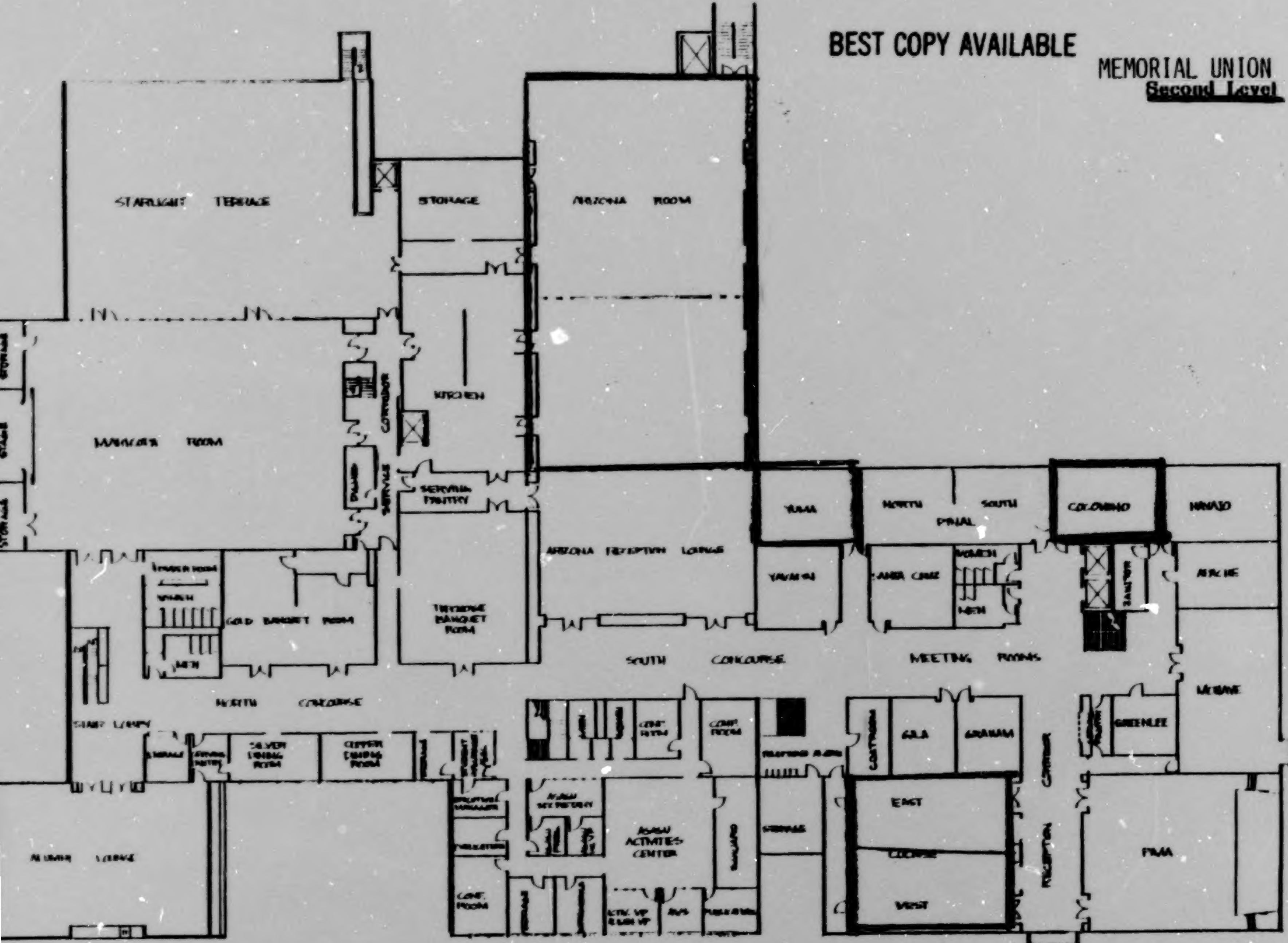
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PROGRAM - 1985 AERC

Friday, March 22

12:00 AM - 2:00 PM	Registration	
2:00 PM - 2:30 PM	Welcome - Dr. Robert Stout, Dean of Education	
3:00 PM - 3:30 PM	Coffee Break	
3:30 PM - 4:20 PM	Four Concurrent Paper Sessions	
Yuma Room	1. Keneipp, Rita (Texas A & M University) "Adult Development in Midlife, Childless Women"	Page 18
Coconino Room	2. Tootle, A. Eugene (Arizona State University) "An Analysis of the Relationship Between Cognitive Style (Field Dependence-Field Independence) and Level of Learning"	Page 29
East Cochise	3. Cookson, Peter S. (Pennsylvania State University) "Reconceptualizing Adult Education Participation: An Empirical Test"	Page 30
West Cochise	4. Bova, Breda Murphy (University of New Mexico) and Phillips, Rebecca (Santa Fe Community College) "Adulthood: Definitions and Perspectives"	Page 3
4:30 PM - 5:20 PM	Four Concurrent Paper Sessions	
Yuma Room	5. Srivastava, Rajendra Kumar (Arizona State Prison) "Educating Incarcerated Adults"	Page 28
Coconino Room	6. Fellenz, Robert A. (Texas A & M University) "Self-Direction: A Clarification of Terms and Causes"	Page 16
East Cochise	7. Sisco, Burton R. (Syracuse University) "From Where We Came: A Critical Examination of Selected Historical Literature of Adult Education"	Page 26
West Cochise	8. McElhinney, James H. (Ball State University) "Multiple Legitimate Uses of Research Processes in Adult Education"	Page 21
5:30 PM - 6:30 PM	Social Hour	

8:00 PM - 9:30 PM	Symposium	
Yuma Room	"A Fresh Look at Adult Development: Alternative Paradigms for Research"	
	Chairperson: Dr. Rosemary Caffarella (Virginia Commonwealth University)	
	Presentors: Dr. Robert L. Bruce (Cornell University)	Page 55
	Dr. Sharan Merriam (Northern Illinois University)	Page 55
	Dr. Rosemary Caffarella (Virginia Commonwealth University)	Page 55
	Moderator: Dr. Gary J. Conti (Texas A & M University)	

aturday, March 23, 1985

8:30 AM - 9:20 AM	Four Concurrent Paper Sessions	
Yuma Room	9. Dowling, William (Ohio State University) "Differences Between Participants and Non-Participants in a Corrections Education Program"	Page 150
Coconino Room	10. Even, Mary Jane (University of Nebraska-Lincoln) "Adult Classroom Locus of Control"	Page 156
East Cochise	11. Boucouvalas, Marcie (Northern Virginia Graduate Center) and Drower, Iris (Mesa Public Schools) "An Exploratory Examination of the Educational Delivery System for Adults in Greece"	Page 30
West Cochise	12. Pratt, Dan and Candy, Phil (University of British Columbia) "The Repertory Grid in Group Oriented Learning Situations: Construing the Constructions of Others"	Page 243
9:30 AM - 10:20 AM	Four Concurrent Paper Sessions	
Yuma Room	13. Caffarella, Rosemary (Virginia Commonwealth University) and Freeman, Stanley (University of Maine-Orono) "Women in Their Thirties: The In-Between Generation"	Page 62
Coconino Room	14. Oddi, Lorys F. (Aurora College) "Development and Validation of an Instrument to Identify Self-Directed Continuing Learners"	Page 229
East Cochise	15. Boshier, Roger W. (University of British Columbia) "Revolting Soldiers: The Origins of Education in the Armies in World War I."	Page 24

West Cochise	16. Candy, Philip C. (University of British Columbia) "Microscope or Telescope: The Place of Metaphor in Adult Education Research"	Page 6
0 AM - 10:40 AM	Coffee Break	
0 AM - 11:30 AM	Four Concurrent Paper Sessions	
Yuma Room	17. Brenden, Mary Ann (College of Catherine) "Patterns of Persistence and Non-Persistence of Non-Traditionally-Aged Undergraduate Women"	Page 4
Coconino Room	18. "Independent Learning and the Reproduction of Inequalities" Borgström, Lena and Rubenson, Kjell (U.B.C.)	
East Cochise	19. McCreary, Elaine K. (University of Guelph) "The Acquisition of Information Resources by Informal Adult Learners"	Page 2
West Cochise	20. Sork, Thomas J. (University of British Columbia) "Stalking the Elusive BOK in Adult Education"	Page 2
40 AM - 12:30 PM	Four Concurrent Paper Sessions	
Yuma Room	21. Clarke, Grant S. (University of British Columbia) "Changes in Role Identification Among Inmate Learners"	Page
Coconino Room	22. Conti, Gary J. and Fellenz, Robert A. (Texas A & M Univeristy) "Cooperation to Improve Teaching at a Land Grant University"	Page 1
East Cochise	23. Thompson, Virginia L. (Queens College) "Adult Learning in a Resource Exchange Network: A Case Study of the West Chester Exchange Network"	Page 2
West Cochise	24. Bohun, Sheila (Johnson County Community College) "A Needs Assessment Methodology for Staff and Organizational Development"	Page
30 PM - 1:30 PM Arizona Room	Lunch (Included in registration fee)	
30 PM - 3:00 PM	Symposium	
Yuma Room	"The Relevance of Hermeneutics for Research and Practice in Adult Education"	
	Coordinator: Dr. Michael Collins (University of Saskatchewan)	
	Presentors: Dr. Adele Chene (University of Montreal)	Page

	Presentors: (Con't) Dr. Michael Collins (University of Saskatchewan)	Page 96
	Jean-Pierre Theil (University of Montreal)	Page 99
00 PM - 3:20 PM	Coffee Break	
20 PM - 4:10 PM	Four Concurrent Paper Sessions	
Yuma Room	25. Dickens, Carrie N. (Pennsylvania State University) "A Study of Adult Education for Black People in Roxbury, Massachusetts 1900-1980"	Page 144
Coconino Room	26. Goodman, Deborah (Arizona State University) "The Influence of Self-Concept as Learner on Participation Patterns of Adult Learners"	Page 176
East Cochise	27. Owens, Margaret S. (University of British Columbia) "An Historical Analysis of Correctional Education in Canada"	Page 236
West Cochise	28. Brookfield, Stephen (Columbia University) "Adult Education as Political Detoxification: Towards Political Literacy for Adults"	Page 49
20 PM - 5:30 PM Arizona Room	Business Meeting - Graduate Student Research Award - Dr. Paul J. Ilsley (Syracuse University)	
00 PM - 7:00 PM	Social Hour Dinner on your Own	

day, March 24, 1985

30 AM - 9:20 AM	Four Concurrent Paper Session	
Yuma Room	29. Copeland, Harlan (University of Minnesota) and Ploetz, Greta (Literacy 85) and Winterbauer, Mary (University of Minnesota) "Assessing the Impact of Adult Literacy Education: A Pilot Study"	Page 115
Coconino Room	30. Little, David J. (University of British Columbia) "Self-Directed Learning: A Conceptual Analysis"	Page 189
East Cochise	31. Courtney, Sean (National College of Education) "Visible Learning: Adult Education and the Question of Participation"	Page 130
West Cochise	32. Collins, Michael (University of Saskatchewan) "Jurgen Habermas's Concept of Communicative Action and its Implications for the Adult Learning Process"	Page 102

:30 AM - 10:20 AM	Four Concurrent Paper Sessions	
Yuma Room	33. Martin, Larry G. (University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee) "The Salient Childhood Experiences of (AHSN-Cs): An Analysis of the Association With Patterns of Financial Support"	Page 20
Coconino Room	34. Danis, Claudia and Tremblay, Nicole (University of of Montreal) "Critical Analysis of Adult Learning Principles from a Self-Directed Learners' Perspective"	Page 13
East Cochise	35. Axford, Roger W. (Arizona State University) "The World Impact of N.F.S. Grundtvig's Educational Ideas!"	Page
West Cochise	36. Costin, A. Joyce (University of British Columbia) "Adult Education and Educational Equality" A Study of the Interrelationships Between the Role of Adult Education and Obstacles to Educational Equality"	Page 12
:20 AM - 10:40 AM	Coffee Break	
:40 AM - 11:30 AM	Four Concurrent Paper Sessions	
Yuma Room	37. Wangberg, Elaine G. (University of New Orleans) "Evaluation of an Interactive, Language Experience Based Microcomputer Approach to Promote Functional Literacy"	Page 30
Coconino Room	38. Londoner, Carroll, A. and Linder, Fredric and Bauer, David (Virginia Commonwealth University) "The Relationship Between Locus of Control and Value Orientations in Adult Learners"	Page 19
East Cochise	39. Shores, W. Louise (University of British Columbia) "Adult Learners' Interactions with Learning Situations: A Theoretical Perspective"	Page 26
West Cochise	40. Chene, Adele (University of Montreal) "Hermeneutics and the Educational Narrative"	Page 7
40 AM - 12:30 PM	Four Concurrent Paper Sessions	
Yuma Room	41. Rossman, Mark (Arizona State University) Powers, Stephen (Tucson Unified School District) "Factors in Attributions For Success and Failure Among Anglo, Black, Hispanic and Native American Community College Students"	Page 25

Coconino Room	42.	Collins, John B. (University of British Columbia) "Lesire Learning, Fitness and Activity Patterns Among Older Adults"	Page 89
East Cochise	43.	Fisher, James C. (University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee) "Participation in Learning Activities by Active Older Adults"	Page 170
West Cochise	44.	Melamed, Lanie (Ontario Institute for Studies in Education) "Play and Playfulness in Adult Learning: Women's Perspectives"	Page 222

ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER THE WORLD IMPACT OF N.F.S. GRUNDTVIG'S ADULT EDUCATION IDEAS, AND THE FOLK SCHOOLS!

AUTHOR Dr. Roger W. Axford, Associate Professor
Department of Higher and Adult Education
Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona, 85287 U.S.A.

This paper examines the major contributions of the founder of the Danish Folk Schools, the impact of Bishop N.F.S. Grundtvig, and the impact of this leader in adult education upon other countries such as Sweden, Norway, Finland, and the United States and Canada. Since we have just celebrated the 200th Anniversary of this great innovator in adult education, I have researched the institutions which have grown out of the Gruntdvig tradition.

Persons such as Christian Kold, Peter Mannicke (Denmark), Paul Kjaer (Elsinore), Miles Horton (Highlander Center, U.S.), Nanna Hoodhope (U.S.) Dr. Paul Bergevin (Indiana Univ. U.S.), Enok Mortensen, (California), Dr. Johannes Knudsen (Glenview College, Iowa), E. Kresent Thuringer, (Arizona) and Leo Lerner (Chicago, Ill). Dr. Roby Kidd (Canada) was much influenced by the thinking of N.F.S. Grundtvig, as was Helen Kekkonen of Finland, that great peaceworker, and head of 12 Finnish Adult Education Organizations. Dr. Jindra Kulich, University of British Columbia gives credit to Grundtvig's infuence on his philosophy and programming in adult education.

This paper describes some of the institutions and leaders that got their inspiration from the writings and spirit of N.F.S. Grundtvig. I am indebted to scholars at Grandview College, the People's College, Elsinore, Denmark, and to numerous scholars I have interviewed.

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THE IMPACT ON N.F.S. GRUNDTVIG (ON ADULT EDUCATORS)
FATHER OF THE DANISH FOLK SCHOOL

Dr. Roger W. Axford, Department of Higher and Adult Education
Arizona State University

The influence of N.F.S. Grundtvig is remarkable! Before preparing this paper, I listed the many persons and institutions that I have known personally, who have been intellectually and spiritually influenced by this great man. I found it was made up of leaders in adult education from the United States, Finland, Norway, Sweden, Canada, England, and of course Grundtvig's beloved Denmark. India, through Rabandinoth Tagore, must be included.

I would like to take you on a personal journey, by showing you the personal impact of this great soul, on a group of us who attended a SEMINAR IN SCANDINAVIAN ADULT EDUCATION, and the International People's College, Peter Mannicke's folk high school in Elsinore, Denmark. This will give you the flavor of the impact of one folk school on a group of Americans. And we had the delightful privilege of having Dr. Peter Mannicke speak to us and tell the dramatic story of his vision of the INTERNATIONAL COLLEGE,[1] and the realization of his dream in 1921 when it was founded. Guided by an international teaching staff, Dr. Mannicke founded the school directly on the principles of Grundtvig, as is stated in some of the promotional material, from which is taken the following:

> "His intention was to establish an International Folk High School, which would basically follow the traditions of the Danish Folk High School movement and the writing of N.F.S. Grundtvig. It should be personal in method, individualistic in educational principle, and Christian-ethnical in purpose. Such a school leads to greater understanding between the people of the world and therefore to cooperation and peace."
> (From the 1978 flyer on the purposes of I.P. College)

Our visits in Denmark included the Glyptotek Art Collections, and the National State Gallery, where we saw more Gauguin paintings than any collection in the world (his wife was Danish). We had sessions on the European Parliament by lecturer Jens Maigard, former member of the Danish Parliament, information on the Danish Institute of Adult Education, by Jens Jorgensen, Principal of the Evening Adult Education Organization in Elsinore, Principal of the International People's College Karen Moller spoke on "Consumerism", visits to the Viking Ship Museum, the Outdoor Folk History Museum, and of course a concert at Tivoli Gardens by a Norwegian orchestra. The reaction to the experience is summed up by Dorothy McPhail, the Dean of the Oral Roberts Hospital in Tulsa, Oklahoma, one of my doctoral students in higher and adult education:

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[1] Peter Mannicke, The International People's College, 1921-71 (Printed in Denmark by L.H. Andersens, Bogtrykkeri, Helsinger

"The adult education seminar in Denmark was a broadening experience, stimulating and inspiring. One can never forget the better understanding of and appreciation of the Danes. Truly an opportunity of a lifetime!"

And Ms. McPhail two years later was giving lectures in mainland China on "Modern techniques in surgical nursing." I cannot overemphasize the impact of these international linkages, and the inspiration provided by contact with adult educators touched by the philosophy of Grundtvig. It was his philosophy which gave me the impetus to put together the Scandinavian Seminar, which has now been followed by trips to Sweden, a Seminar in Norway, a World Adult Education Conference with Helen Kekkonen, Executive Director of the Finnish Association of Folk Schools in Helsinki, Finland, and a study tour of England and Wales where Grundtvig got some of his inspiration from the Residential Colleges of Great Britain. It is a chain of friendship, and emulation of programs.

Another testimony came from two retirees who have traveled the world, Bob and Kitty Bokum of Sun City, Arizona. "The Scandinavian Seminar was one of the most worthwhile travel experiences we ever had." Only a limited number of the adults took the Seminar for credit, which I think would have pleased Grundtvig, for most of these persons took the Seminar for the intrinsic value of the insights to be gained. I requested that students keep a journal of their insights and observations.

John Shea, who for 31 years worked for the U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs as a teacher and administrator in Alaska, New Mexico and Arizona and now works as a librarian said of his Danish Experience, "Grundtvig wanted to pick up the people where they were. He wanted to help put people in a place where they could make the best life. The Scandinavian Seminar was an inspiration and one of my richest experiences. It was enhanced by the philosophy of Grundtvig, field trips, and speakers and Danish contacts. I got most out of the visits to the trade schools and the nurseries. I love plants."

"THE COMMON GOOD-GRUNDTVIG'S PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATION FOR THE WELFARE STATE"

Dr. K.E. Bugge, Professor of History, University of Copenhagen makes mention of Grundtvig's applying the concept of "interaction" to his educational philosophy. He wisely applies the adjectives "free, living, and natural" as being part of that interaction. He says two different subject-areas are within the category of interaction: partly the function of interaction, and partly the conditions under which it functions. The concept of interaction is basic to wise adult education. Grundtvig advocated the "living dialogue" which is the essence of adult learning and democratic participation. The writings of Drs. Malcolm Knowles, Carl Rogers, and much of Carl Jung are rooted in the same philosophical foundation.

It is interesting that the ideas of Grundtvig promulgating free schools of enlightenment were not just limited to folk schools, but were adapted to non-academic educational activities in village assembly halls and in church meetings. Democratic interaction was the foundation of learning in Grundtvig's philosophy. It was the "interaction" of the farmers of Denmark that resulted in a groundswell of self-rule, and a belief in social democracy. The idea of the "common good" so close to Grudtvig's heart, is the very basis for the "welfare state" which has brought social security, medicare, medicaid, postal services, public schools, and soon national health insurance. Now, let us examine some of the impact of Grundtvig's philosophy on persons and institutions in the United States, Canada, and throughout the world.

MILES HORTON, FOUNDER OF HIGHLANDER FOLK SCHOOL

For more than forty years I have known Miles Horton, and contributed to the work of the Highlander Folk School, New Market, Tennessee. Highland has been a potent force in molding desegregation, unionism, and social democracy. Miles founded Highlander Center on the basic tenants of N.F.S. Grundtvig. We have, in fact, exchanged correspondence, and I have shared my Grundtvig bibliography with Miles for an address he gave in Denmark.

It should be remembered that some of the leaders of the Civil Rights Movement came from the training ground, which was Highlander Folk School. Rosa Parks, trained in non-violent techniques of resisting injustice, was the person who refused to sit in the back of the bus, the Jim Crow section of the Montgomery, Alabama bus. And we remember it was the action which precipitated the long and successful bus boycott in Montgomery, and brought about some of the legislation outlawing segregation, enacted under President Lyndon Johnson.

Where was Dr. Martin Luther King trained in techniques of civil disobedience, and non-violent action?...It was a Highlander Folk School under the leadership of Miles Horton and his team. And remember, Highlander was burned down once by the Southern bigots, but like the Phoenix bird it was rebuilt again with dollars sent by persons who like Grundtvig, believed in dignity, and the "common good"... It was the Christian precepts of Grundtvig that motivated people like Horton, Rosa Parks, and Martin Luther King... And I am proud to have had a small part in that Highlander rebuilding.

Notice how closely the philosophy of Miles Horton parallels that of Grundtvig...Says Horton..."Folk schools were freed from fixed curricula, with exams and diplomas, and could focus on the Dane's history, a search for their roots and heritage. They examined national aspirations, and discussed local problems, and the emerging social movement." He continues, "I was most impressed and helped by the first folk schools and their relation to an emerging democratic social movement and their struggle against oppression," and Miles Horton put this philosophy into the reality of programs and training. He deliberately founded Highlander in a poverty area, to serve poverty people, and to help them achieve dignity, and economic democracy through unionism, and training in self-government. Comparing the Danish folk school with his, Horton says, "While they differed in objective, each (folk school) had a clear cut, emotionally charged spiritual purpose--a Forkynoelst. They knew what they believed and why. Others more apt than Grundtvig in programming or making operational his educational ideas, Grundtvig was strong in spirit, vision, belief in common people and in political understanding."

I am here reminded of the powerful leadership of Christian Kold who took the ideas of Grundtvig and made them operational. It was Kold who said (and I keep this on my wall as a reminder), "first enliven, then enlighten." I recommend for your reading CHRISTEN KOLD: THE LITTLE SCHOOL-MASTER WHO HELPED A NATION by Nanna Goodhope (Printed by Luthern Publishing House, Blair, Nebr, USA), 1956. I first read the book at the International People's College.

Grundtvig was the idea person, and Kold was the organizer. I have found that in adult education, university extension, or extra-mural programs, both are needed to make ideas into realities, and institutionalize ideas and ideals. This came alive for me when I visited the Askov Folk High School in Denmark in 1978. Weaving, art, sculpture, history, all were programmatic in the Grundtvig tradition...

"Learning should be joyful" was one of the precepts of Grundtvig. Singing is and was a part of the curricula of the folks schools and it is an integral part of the life at Highlander. Interestingly, when I was at Murrika, Finland, a folk school residential center where adult educators came from more than twenty-eight countries, we all sang together "WE SHALL OVERCOME," and they all knew it in English. Never let it be said that Dr. Martin Luther King died in vane!

Notice how closely Grundtvig, Miles Horton, and that great educational philosopher and Progressive Educator, Dr. John Dewey parallel in their thinking. Of schools, Joh Dewey said (Speaking to the American Federation of Teachers, of which he held Membership Chard No. 1), "Our schools are still too academic! If our programs of study in our schools are still too academic and too pedantic, too remote from contact of life, it is largely because the educators, administrators, and the teachers are themselves so far remote from the actual problems of life as they are met by the great mass of the population."

Grundtvig felt that the "teacher must in so many words give up all his masterly ways, and put on the guise of a servant." My recollection is that is scriptual, if my Baptist, Swedish Methodist upbringing serves me well! This is basic to adult education. We are all life-long learners together! My textbook is called (by intention) ADULT EDUCATION: OPEN DOOR TO LIFELONG LEARNING. This implies the humility of becoming as a little child, and that is good Grundtvig philosophy. As a Quaker, I like Grundtvig's use of "my friends," throughout his writings.

EDUCATION-FOR THIS LIFE

Grundtvig was the forerunner of the Progressive Educators, John Dewey, Kilpatrick, and George Counts. He was anti-elitist. "Education must be worked out for this life." Grundtvig does not appear to be "other-wordly" but puts his Christianity to work, here and now. I like his ideas of "clarification" which takes place in our temporal life in an historical context.

And true education includes as Grundtvig says, true interaction, I like the idea of "genuine reciprocal teaching." When we are dealing with adults, often the vast experience of mature adults humbles the most knowledgeable professor. I like the idea that "living, oral communication should consist of a conversation between the teacher (the content person) and the pupil (the learner). "Reciprocal education" is worthy of incorporating into our vocabulary along with andragogy, the ways in which adults learn, as contrasted with pedagogy, the way children learn.

Grundtvig was an "adult educator" ahead of his time. His emphasis upon the appeal to student's interests in sound adult learning practice. We should notice against he link between education and the "the general welfare."

Grundtvig said the main perspective of education should be "Man-kind in general and society in particular." This is the philosophical basis for a social democracy.

LIBERTY AND RESPONSIBILITY

We must remember Grundtvig's visits to England, and the impact of his seeing the dangers of "unrestrained freedom." Social responsibility was tied up with Grundtvig's ideas of "liberty." We are reminded that liberty is closely knit together with a commitment to take care of the well-being of other people." Again the grounding for the welfare state. He believed we are our brother's and sister's keeper. Grundtvig became more political after seeing children exploited in England. He saw the tragedy of unrestrained exploitation. Fortunately, Grundtvig warned that "strife and competition are not in itself a positive symptom of life. It is on the contrary, a warning to us that life is in danger!" In this he is warning us of the dangers of the excesses of "free-enterprise." He is warning us that liberty involves , SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY. Like Gandhi, Grundtvig came into feel that politics is religion, and religion is politics. Indian adult educators have been trained at International People's College, Elsinore in Grundtvig philosophy.

THE HISTORICAL-POETICAL IN GRUNDTVIG'S THINKING

The idea of cultural identity loomed large in Grundtvig's outlook. He used the word "folkelig." The "history of the people" if referred to several times. We must know our cultural history, and we must know certain events that should not be repeated. With looming atomic destruction as a cloud of terror over our head, all of us need to be good students of history and of Grundtvig. We must see that war is never again used as a means of settling international disputes. I give credit to the Scandinavin folk schools of awakening the "psychic numbness" of Europe, the banning of atomic bombs, and atomic plants. I feel Grundtvig would be proud of us! It is in keeping with continually making education "relevant." I think he would agree with Dr. Albert Einstein who said after Hiroshima and Nagasaki, "Every think now has changed, BUT OUR THINKING." I think it is the poetic that may save us. I have read and sung some of the hymns Grundtvig wrote. I think today he would be a world federalist. My study tours are in keeping with his ideas of understanding "cultural identity." We study the customs, the plastic arts and literature, the countries' philosophers, contemplate, contemplate its movements, and listen to its music. The philosophy of N.F.S. Grundtvig is part of my graduate adult education courses, as I feel we must know our heroes, and the history of our discipline. It is significant that at the University of Indiana, where for years Dr. Paul Bergevin was the Chair, Danish was a required subject in the doctoral program, he thought, a necessity to understanding the Danish folk schools.

NATURAL EDUCATION-A RECOGNITION OF STAGES OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

The ideas of Grundtvig of "respect for human life" and the second, "an awareness that human development is promoted in the confrontation with an external influence" is as contemporary as Robert Havighurst, or Erikson who postulated that we have eight stages of ego development. I like the idea that the "mask of maturity" must not be stamped on the child. It would be the same as stamping the child with death." The whole idea of developmental education is in keeping with Grundtvig's idea about the "order of nature, that each individual passes through a particular historical process: from childhood through youth, and maturity to old age." Grundtvig was progressive educator, and he would have felt at home with the modern day developmental psychologists. He might have enjoyed my research in RECAREERING, which deals with adults who have changed careers after retirement. One of my interviews was with a student of Grundtvig, and a member of the Board of the International People's College in Elsinore, Kaj Strandberg, who attended the college as a boy, and is now in his seventies. He is a Danish Historian who helped many Jews across the channel into Sweden during W.W. II. Grundtvig influenced his humane actions!

"THE LIVING WORD" AND THE AMERICAN SCENE

I am indebted to fellow scholar Enok Mortensen, of Solvang, California for a fine documentation of the experiments with the establishment of folk schools in the United States, patterned after the folk schools of Denmark.[1] Mortensen documents the history of the first such school established in Elk Horn, Iowa in 1878. He devotes a chapter to the second folk school built at Ashland, Michigan in 1882; the third at my home state Nysted, Nebraska in 1887. Then Danebody was begun at Tyler, Minnesota in 1888, and Atterdatg at Solvang, California in 1911. Canada experimented with the folk school by establishing the Dalum Folk School in Alberta, Canada. these schools exerted an enormous influence on the students, who were not there for degrees, but in the Grundtvig tradition learned mainly history, literature and public affairs. Many of them were awakened "to a new understanding of themselves as human beings; and although the folk school sought deliberately not be a church, the leaders, most of whom were of the Christian faith, conveyed and communicated to them a world view...which transcended humanism, and touch deep sources of enlightment and inspiration."[2]

For an insight into the "Living Word" concept I am indebted to the scholar Dr. Johannes Knudsen who points out that "an excellent expression for oral communication of ideas which loomed so large in the program, but the term means much more than an ability to speak freely and interestingly. It should be related to Grundtvig's whole realm of ideas, especially his religious concepts. Basically it is an expression of God's creative and redemptive power. God acts in his work, and when he acts, his word is a living word. From this understanding of the living word of God we proceed to the spoken or living word of man, the sign or evidence of his creation by God. Man's word is also creative. It creates spiritual realities which can become alive only through the word..."[3]

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[1] SCHOOLS FOR LIFE, The Grundtvigian Folk Schools in America, Enok Mortensen, Danish-American Heritage Society, American Pub. Co., Askov, Minn. 55704

[2] IBID. p. 6

[3] Johannes Knudsen, N.F.S. GRUNDTVIG, SELECTED WRITINGS, Fortress Press, Phila. PA. 1976.

GRUNDTVIG'S BASIC RELIGIOUS BELIEFS

An educator cannot ignore Grundtvig's deep religious beliefs, for they were at the root of his education philosophy. He rejected the doctrine of man's total depravity, but he was not unmindful of man's failures and his weaknesses. But, beautiful is one of the passages from one of his songs"

> "Man first, the Christian,
> This alone is the order of life."

He was branded by some a heretic, which puts him in good company. His concept of man and man's earthly life gave rise to the charge that he was a humanist, with which many of us educators can proudly identify. He was aware of man's sinfulness and his dependence on God, but he insisted that man' plight was a mark of his nobility, his unique dignity, and his basic worth. He believed humans are made in the image of God, and he liked the term "menneske," a human being...Grundtvig wrote in a letter:

> "All our (Christian) endeavors are wasted
> unless the response in people to human mirth
> and joy is reawakened; for of what worth is an
> eternal life, if we do not have a temporary life
> which we can joyfully anticipate as being eternal..."

THAT I LIKE! He was a man with a sense of humor, and said "learning should be fun."

He said Christianity had for its purpose to save mankind, i.e., it was not to liberate man from life, but for life. As might be expected, a major attack came from the pietists, who considered all "folkelig" endeavors a shield for paganism, worldliness, and "Un Christican." A true folk school is not labeled "Christian." It is rooted in a culture and in a folkway that antedate Christianity: music, songs, methology, poetry, dances and ingredients that are indigenous to and shape the life of a people.

Besides the influence of N.F.S. Grundtvig on the folk schools of Denmark, Norway, Finland, and Sweden, his impact has been felt in the Netherlands, Germany and other countries, including the United States, Canada and India.

In the United States the publisher of the largest chain of weekly newspapers in the world, the late Leo A. Lerner, attened a summer of folk school activities and came home a devotee of Grundtvig and the folk schools. At the time Mr. Lerner was the Chair of the Board of Roosevelt University in Chicago, as well as publishing his Northside Chicago newspapers. He had become a Grundtvig disciple and shared with me his enlightening and inspiring experiences in Scandinavia. It was then I determined to visit Grundtvig land, and to take adult educators to observe and learn about the adult folk schools.

Many of my graduate students have been inspired by the philosophy of the folk school. E. Kresent Thuringer, M.Ed. in higher and adult education wrote an extensive study on the "Folk High Schools of Denmark." Others who have come under the influence of Grundtvig philosophy are Chihiro Kinoshita of Japan, Joe Adam Diaz, Chicano and Intern in Prison Education, and Ogee Rocha of Brazil, all graduate students of mine. This plus the teachers who have attended workshops in Norway and Denmark with me.

In Norway, Kjelly Odegaard, the Rector of the Follo Folk High School in Vestby, Norway is a student of Grundtvig philosophy and opened his school to international students from all over the world. Last time I visited there he had students from 23 countries, with a program emphasis on international peace and understanding.

One of the inspiring books to come out of the folk school movement is LUST FOR LEARNING by Aage Rosendal Nielsen. He and Dr. Benjamin Bloom, Professof Education, University of Chicago documented the unique program procedures of "A NEW EXPERIEMENTAL COLLEGE; A WORLD COLLEGE IN DENMAR." It is in the Grundtvig tradition, and was run by students and faculty in a most democratic fashion.

In Canada, one of the students of the Danish Folk Schools and of Grundtvig is Dr. Jindra Kulich, Director of Center for Continuing Education, University of British Columbia. Married to a Danish wife, they visit the land of Grundtvig often. We visited together in Denmark. One of the scholarly comparisons of the Polish and Danish Folk Adult Schools is done by Dr. Kulich. It is available upon request.

SUMMARY

The future impact of the philosophy of N.F.S. Grundtvig is difficult to predict. The seeds have been sown in much of the underdeveloped world, thanks to adult educators who have been fired with the inspiration of the folk school movement. Erling Duus and John Ramsay of Berea College are spreading the word of Grundtvig's informal adult education by taking groups to Denmark, and by utilizing the ideas of "interaction" and reciprocal teaching" in their activities at Berea College. The Folk School Association of America with it's summer gatherings at folk schools in the U.S. keeps alive the ideas of "communication" articulated by Grundtvig. The archives of the Center for Grundtvig studies at Grandview College, Des Moines, Iowa encourage scholars to investigate and write of Grundtvig's music, world outlook, and philosophy of the "Bright and Glorious in the Sky." The love of Nordic history, the mythology, and the poetry of a great soul, plus the spirituality of the 1400 hymns will inspire the youth, through the Center.

It is my hope that the International agencies like UNESCO, The World Health Organization, and the Agency for International Devlopment will grasp the ideas and ideals of the folk school, and the Grundtvig philosophy and use it as a humane force in the Third World. It has the making of a lifting of people from poverty, and helping people to make the abundant life a reality. Rather than exporting the "British" elitism of high education, the democratic education utilized in "reciprocal teaching" can be the means to a "socialized" society. As Julius K. Nyerere, President of the United Republic of Tanzania said in the DECLARATION OF DAR ES SALAAM in 1976, adult education must be the change agent, and that "Development is for Man, by Man, and of Man." That is in the spirit of N.S.F. Grundtvig, and we all can take inspiration from his life and teachings. Let us celebrate Grundtvig! Peace and joyful abundance be yours and ours, in the spirit of N.F.S. Grundtvig!

RESOURCES ON N.F.S. GRUNDTVIG AND FOLK SCHOOLS

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER A Needs Assessment Methodology for Staff and Organizational Development

AUTHOR Sheila Bohun, Ed. D.

This study utilized a perspective discrepancy methodology to assess employee-based needs within the social context of a specific work situation. The approach focused on a comparative analysis of the discrepancies between the current and intended work practice and expectations of the principal participants in order to identify real and potential problems. As a result of this examination, recommendations were made for employee training and development and for organizational policy and procedural changes.

The perspective discrepancy assessment (PDA) methodology was developed for the study of educational programs by the Center for Adult Education at Teachers College, Columbia University. It was first used in a national study of adult basic education. It has since been further developed, refined, and used extensively for evaluation studies. By identifying and analyzing major themes of a program through the perspectives of the people involved in it, understanding of not only what is occurring but why it is happening becomes possible.

Unique to this present study was the use of the interview format for PDA in combination with documentary analysis and participant observations. The methodology was field tested at the New York City Human Resources Administration-Medical Assistance Program (Medicaid). The study was undertaken to achieve an understanding of how the analytical group was currently functioning and what the expectations were for this group.

The study looked at the function of the analysts in the context of four major projects within a six month period. There were four groups interviewed: the analysts; their supervisor; the division director; and personnel of the target unit. In all the perceptions of about 21 staff central to the study were examined and analyzed. All data was integrated through a coding and sorting process and compiled into four case studies. Six themes were identified as significant to the study. When discrepancies were discovered and needs identified, appropriate corrective actions were recommended. The process itself was identified as initiating social change.

This study, the first to utilize the interview format for PDA, further demonstrates the power, flexibility and adaptability of this approach within the field of adult education. With adaptations for specific settings, this methodology can be used by top administrators and policy-makers, in a wide variety of work situations, to obtain information that would serve to both develop employees and fulfill organizational needs.

A NEEDS ASSESSMENT METHODOLOGY FOR STAFF AND ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

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INTRODUCTION

Training and development in many civil service agencies is generic in approach and often seen as objectified skills and competencies. Frequently topics identified by management to be of general importance are taught to all employees with little regard for job placement or individual needs. Thus, training may in some cases actually increase levels of employee frustration, conflict and confusion.

Though many situations that exist in bureaucratic agencies are endemic to the system and are not amenable to training, in areas where frustrations and conflict between individual and organizational goals can be attributed to inadequate skills, lack of knowledge, or inappropriate attitudes within the work structure itself, educational intervention can be used to foster change.

Analysis of needs is recognized by all theorists and practitioners in the fields of education and training as an integral and, perhaps, the most important part of any well-designed training plan.

A needs assessment is done to provide data for making informed and responsive policy decisions. The purpose of performing an assessment is to assure relevance to both the needs of the individual and the organization. If assessments are not performed or are inadequate, irrelevant, or misleading, this harms the organization, demoralizes the worker, and reinforces negative attitudes toward learning.

The Federal Government Employees Training Act of 1958 designated the Civil Service Commission as manager of training activities. State and local governmental agencies looked to Commission activities for guidance. In a Commission study of 43 governmental agencies, reports DiLauro (1979), a great variety of needs assessment methods were found to be in use ranging from the informal to the highly sophisticated. The most commonly used methods were surveys, questionnaires, and the circulation of a "menu" or listing of the training opportunities available.

The Commission, as do many other organizations, defines training needs in terms of performance gaps and thus approaches needs assessments from a performance analysis perspective. If both the desired level of performance and the actual level are determined, a discrepancy is set up which defines the training need ([illegible]ght, 1976).

This approach is, in general, considered simplistic and is appropriate only for jobs that are completely and accurately described and where performance is frequently measured. Besides a lack of theory development in diagnosing performance problems, organizational planning and objectives are

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also ignored (Fraser et al., 1978). In addition, Zemke (1981) points out that gaps between actual and desired performance can arise from many causes and may not at all define a training need.

In reality, needs assessments are far from the carefully developed, thorough investigations that theorists propose. Often when programs are simply offered under pressure to respond to unsubstantiated demands of management for a particular kind of training, responses are made without distinguishing wants from needs (Lawrie & Boringer,19̄1). When assessments are done, they are usually conducted on a periodic program-oriented, crisis management basis. Once data are collected, intuition or training literature is frequently used to explain the meaning of the perceived needs; data are not always thought through and reflected in the design of the program. Changes made in one program may have unforeseen and often negative repercussions on others. Finally, there is a tendency for needs assessments to be reactive rather than future oriented (Leach, 1979).

For an assessment to have meaning, it should be conducted under the leadership of a professional familiar with the theory and practice of program development and it must be part of an ongoing, coordinated, and integrated systems analysis of the organization. In addition to performance gaps, many other factors should be looked at including organizational climate, political alliances, job descriptions, backgrounds of employees, interpersonal relations and individual perspectives.

This study utilizes a perspective discrepancy methodology to assess employee-based needs within the social context of a specific work situation. The methodology was field-tested at the New York City Human Resources Administration-Medical Assistance Program (Medicaid). The study was undertaken to achieve an understanding of how the analytical unit was currently functioning and what the expectations were for this group. The analysts constituted a special unit established to act in an evaluative and advisory capacity for the Medicaid program. Their work includes assistance in preparation and conduct of management surveys, administrative and procedural analyses, and evaluation of organizational structures, policies, programs, practices, and operations of City agencies.

This study looked at the function of the analysts in the context of all major projects within a six month period. A major project is here defined as one that takes more than three months to complete and has a potentially significant impact on the agency. In the stated time there were four projects that fit the definition and also gave a representative sample of the work of the analysts.

METHODOLOGY

The perspective discrepancy assessment (PDA) method was developed for the study of educational program by the Center for Adult Education at Teachers College, Columbia University, This method has been shown to be highly successful for achieving program improvement and developing staff, as well as for policy clarification.

According to Mezirow (1978), "the basic assumption behind the Perspective Discrepancy Model is that educational process can best be understood by examining how those involved perceive and understand the process and themselves in relation to it."

By identifying and analyzing major themes of a program through the perspectives of the people involved in it, understandings of not only what is occurring but why it is happening becomes possible.

A comparative analysis of reported and observed discrepancies in what is currently practiced, what is the intended practice, and the expectations of the principle participants identifies real and potential problems. This method also identifies and thus strengthens already successful components of the process.

This study utilized the assessment approach to identify areas for staff development and training. The program participants collaborated on the study. As discrepancies that were amenable to training were identified, appropriate recommendations were formulated. The resulting process was then subjected to continual assessment. Thus, using perspective discrepancy assessment also served an educative function for the participants and provided for an ongoing evaluation of the study.

Unique to this present study was the use of an interview format for PDA. This was used in combination with documentary analysis and participant observation.

An analysis of reports, organizational charts, management plans, personnel records, and other documents that relate to the work of the analytical staff were reviewed. As a result of this, the researcher was able to obtain an overview of current practices and put it in perspective of the organization.

Interactions between those involved in the analytic process were accessible to the researcher from a unique perspective; both as a participant herself, and also as an observer with a conceptual framework into which observed information could be assimilated.

And, in addition, interviews were carried out with significant program participants to find out things that could not be observed--thoughts, feelings, and intentions. Patton (1980) states, "We cannot observe how people have organized the world and the meanings they attach to what goes on in the world--we have to ask people about these things. The purpose of interviewing, then is to allow us to enter into the other person's perspective."

An interview guide was developed identifying essential dimensions for study. The items included in the guide were decided upon by the reseacher from her analysis of documents, experience as participant-observer, insights gleaned from the training and development literature and input from a committee of program participants. The guide was pretested by two former analysts whose comments proved most helpful and were incorporated into the guide. Ongoing analysis for constant revision of the guide as new perspectives emerged.

Using a guide provided the advantages of efficient management of the time availabe in the interview situation and it kept the interview focused. The guide insured that basically the same information was obtained from each of the participants to permit comparability of data. The guide did not contain any predetermined questions. It served simply as a check list during the interview to make sure that all relevant issues were covered. The interviewer's aim was to ask spontaneous questions to probe, explore, and elucidate the perspectives of others.

There were four groups interviewed: the analysts; their supervisor; the division director; and personnel of the target units that the analysts interacted with. The analysts and their supervisor were asked current practice, how things were, in fact, being done, and the director was asked intended practice, how he felt things should be done, given the existing constraints, The target unit personnel were to be asked about current practice in the areas of interaction with the analysts. However, when interviewing began, it was quite clear that the staff of the target unit also had definite perceptions of how work relationships should be handled. This is one example where the guide was revised to reflect the reality of the ongoing study. In all, the perceptions of about 21 staff central to the study were examined and analyzed.

The methodology of the study lends itself more to a qualitative analysis of data rather than to a quantitative tabulation of responses. To facilitate and focus the study, a case study approach was utilized and comparisons across cases were made. All data was integrated through a coding and sorting process and compiled into four case studies, one for each project. The objective of the case study format was to present an understanding of the process involved in each study from the onset to the conclusion and to lay the ground work for the more extensive analysis that followed.

FINDINGS

Six themes were identified as significant to this study. These themes were: the educational and experiential backgrounds of the analysts; their orientation to and training for the position; the analytical work process; team membership; interpersonal relationships between analysts and target unit personnel; and supervision.

Through data analysis it was possible to identify within these themes those areas in which staff development was needed, as well as those areas which were functioning well. When discrepancies were discovered and needs identified, appropriate corrective actions were recommended. All findings were shared with program participants.

Though this study was originally designed to define only training and development needs of one specific group in the workplace, the data collected proved far richer and suggested the need for policy and procedural changes in the Medical Assistance Program.

DISCUSSION

Eliciting the perspective of the individuals crucial to the process is the key to Perspective Discrepancy Assessment and the factor which differentiates this methodology from others currently in use.

In studying the program dynamics through the perspectives of the participants, a composite of the process emerged. Many of the identified discrepancies between current and intended program practices as defined by the participants, as well as expectations in and between groups were not correctable through training strategies alone: policy and procedural changes were clearly indicated.

Only by assessing how people perceive the process they are involved in and their own roles within this process can one begin to understand not only what is happening but why this is occurring. The use of open-ended interviews, in particular, yielded data on the work environment, the value of work in the lives of individuals, and the way workers perceived their roles and relationships within the social structure of the workplace.

The critical personal attributes that emerged and reemerged in this study gave a picture of a workforce that was demoralized, frustrated, angry, and feeling impotent. The bureaucracy, with its tendency to depersonalize and dehumanize the individual, is probably one of the most difficult settings in which to foster change and growth. To be effective, staff training and development must have as its goal helping each individual to find his or her 'voice," to critically re-examine the assumptions of the institution and one's roles, values, and relationship to it.

The very process of PDA is a first step toward initiating social change. A skilled consultant can help guide the worker to see the reality of the workplace and his or her role in it; to question this role and to reflect upon his or her beliefs. Through the inclusion of all levels of staff in all phases of the process, the workers can be empowered, both individually and as a group, to assume a stake in their own future and in so doing bring about a change in the entire organization.

This study, the first to utilize the interview format for Perspective Discrepancy Assessment, further demonstrates the power, flexibility and adaptability of this approach within the field of adult education. With adaptations for specific settings, this methodology can be used by top administrators and policy makers, in a wide variety of work situations, to obtain information that would serve to develop employees and fulfill organizational needs.

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Revolting Soldiers: The Origins of Education in the Armies of the Empire in World War I

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Army education schemes represent one of the most remarkable but least well understood events in the history of adult education. When war was declared in August 1914 men hurried to recruitment centres fearing delay might inhibit their chance for an overseas "adventure" likely to end by Christmas. But as war stiffened into stalemate, and excitement was dimmed by incompetence and death, authorities had to cope with hundreds of thousands of bored, and, in many instances, revolting soldiers some of whom refused to salute the King. Something had to be done and education seemed like a good instrument to divert men from dangerous pursuits.

In their Final Report (1919) the Adult Education Committee of the Minstry of Reconstruction labelled army education as a "triumph of improvisation". Canadians enrolled more than 600,000 men in two contrasting schemes led by rivals whose conflict is a tale of epic proportions (see Boshier, 1985). The New Zealand story involved a struggle between W.E.A. "voluntarists" and a lawyer who favoured "compulsory" participation. Australians had a scheme led by the ebullient George Long, Anglican Bishop of Bathurst. Long's conflict with his Prime Minister, the feisty William Hughes, significantly influenced the character of Australian army education. The full story of army education is intricate, fascinating but too lengthy to explain here. Rather, the purpose of this paper is to explore circumstances surrounding the creation of education schemes in the armies of the British Empire. The order of events is worth noting because the earliest influenced the later schemes. An understanding of their creation is essential to a comparativist perspective.

Army education schemes were impelled by stalemate at the front, boredom in hospitals and altercations at camps. It was not easy to see who was "first" although, with the insolence of hindsight, possible to document "antecedent" events and what appeared to be the official launching of education schemes in the armies of the Empire. Caution is needed because officials in both the Canadian and New Zealand armies claimed to be "first". Colonel H. Stewart, New Zealand, wrote in the Empire Review that "... in this matter the N.Z.E.F. appears justified in claiming to have been the pioneer in the systematic class work extended to every Expeditionary Force in the British armies" (1919, p. 64). An unnamed foreign correspondent for The Times of London also reported that "the N.Z.E.F. claims to have been the pioneer" (March 20, 1919, p. 133). Colonel Lord Gorell, Director of Education in the British army said work "in the various Dominion forces" preceded their scheme. Speaking to the Royal Royal Colonial Institute Gorell noted that when creating the British scheme "application was made to the Canadian forces for information concerning the work they already had in hand" (1919, p. 29). The Australians also acknowledged that their scheme was modelled on those in other imperial armies. Supporting evidence comes from their official war historian C.E.W. Bean who wrote to the G.O.C. of the Canadian corps asking about the "possibility of instituting lectures and university courses behind the lines on somewhat the same system as, I believe, is in practice in your force". Modern Australian historians such as Semple (1983) also say "the Australian scheme was influenced from the outset by the example of its Canadian forerunner". This leaves Canadians and New Zealanders as contenders for the "first" prize. After the war the New Zealanders returned home confident they were first and published official histories (Richardson, 1923) saying so. Canadians also returned home confident their scheme was used as a model by the other armies of the Empire. However, any Canadian inclination to repudiate the New Zealand claim was masked by the emergence of two separate schemes headed by men who didn't trust the other to "write the history". As a result, the history of education in the Canadian corps was never published and, as the men involved tried to reestablish universities after the war, it became a matter of little consequence.

BROKEN SPIRITS

When Gorell first suggested educating soldiers he was accused of being a Bolshevik. Soldiers were supposed to kill and, as the war became more gruesome, the rationale behind military training was to drive out qualms and replace them with simple "blood lust". As Brigadier-General Crozier said when describing the training programme for his batallion "blood lust is ... taught in bayonet fighting itself and by doping ... minds with propagandistic poison" (1930, p. 42). Crozier thought the British soldier was a "kindly fellow" so it was necessary to "corrode his mentality". In this climate it was not suprising that the Final Report of the Adult Education Committee found many authorities "... viewed efforts to provide education for soldiers in wartime with mingled astonishment and scepticism" (1919, p. 343)

Three things changed this attitude. First, hospitals and camps became clogged with soldiers who had an earnest desire and need to learn. Second, educators in khaki pressed for the creation of army education schemes. But, more significantly, the mood grew ugly and authorities started looking to education for a solution. Early battles were a disaster. Men marched foward in rows much as they had in the South African wars. German machine gunners simply mowed them down, row after row. "Colonials" resented British commanders and, as vast armies bogged down there was a feeling that "boys from the Dominions" were being used as cannon fodder. By 1917 the mood was mutinous. As a result the number of men shot for mutiny, desertion and other offences increased (Wintringham, 1936). An incident at Etaples base camp on Sunday September 9, 1917 was typical. A New Zealand gunner had been arrested. A crowd gathered and would not disperse until he was released. Military police arrived, scuffles broke out and shots were fired. A corporal lay dead and a French woman bystander was wounded. News of the shooting spread and, by 7 p.m., 1000 angry men were pursuing military police who fled into town. This incident continued for several days and only ended when authorities brought in machine gunners (Lamb, 1977).

By late 1917 the romance of war had been shattered in unprecedented ferocity and aggression at Vimy Ridge, Arras, and other places. Men from far-off lands seemed trapped by death and war where there was little sign of progress. They stopped writing of "life after the war" and "when I get home" and "I suppose its summer now" for, as Gammage (1974) noted, these things had sunk in the past, "beyond dreams or memory, almost certainly beyond recovery". There was no future beyond the next battle, leave or rampage in a neighbouring village. As George Mitchell, an Australian quoted by Gammage said "I feel that I have lost touch with any life but this one of war. It is hard to recall Australia, and apart from my people, nothing stands out vividly. I feel an outsider. We are lost in the magnitude of our task". This despair was reflected in predictions about the end. In August 1914 it was to be all over by Christmas. By 1916 many thought a long war was possible. By 1917 it was felt that Germany would have to be starved into defeat.

In November 1917 Clarence MacKinnon stood in the Canadian Corps headquarters at Camblain L'Abbe. Major-General Lipsett, commander of the Third Division, wanted to talk about education. He balanced tea in one hand, leaned on the fireplace and, with "tears in his eyes" reviewed the costly Canadian victory at Vimy and other traumas of 1917. MacKinnon (1938) was deeply moved by Lipsett describing what "his boys" had been through. Carnage, successes, blunders, pleasure concerning Canadian railways for moving munitions to the front. The men were restless; they needed an education programme. MacKinnon had been running a "Khaki College" for Canadians in the camps in England. Could he suggest someone to do a similar job in France ? As a result of this meeting Edmund Oliver of Saskatoon was brought up from Boulougne to create what turned into the University of Vimy Ridge.

ORIGINS

After their founding, education schemes developed rapidly. Only two years separated the founding and dismantling of the Canadian Khaki University and, within a fortnight of its initial meeting, the University of Vimy Ridge was thriving. But deciding whether Canadians or New Zealanders were "first" depends upon the extent to which formative events, pilot programmes and other educational episodes are considered.

The New Zealand Scheme

In March 1917, the New Zealand Y.M.C.A. created a small education programme for limbless soldiers at Oatlands hospital. Horace Fawcett, the Y.M.C.A. secretary involved, was assisted by Mrs. Edward Wilson, wife of the late Antarctic explorer. Richardson (1923), the G.O.C. of the N.Z. Expeditionary Force in the United Kingdom, said the results at Oatlands "were encouraging" and "a larger application was worthy of a fair trial". Unfortunately, further plans were shelved during the German offensives of 1917 although it was felt that when circumstances changed it would be possible to create a scheme "grafted onto the military tree" (Kirk, 1919). There were 60,000 New Zealanders who would benefit if a scheme could be started.

On December 23rd, 1917 a short, intelligent and argumentative New Zealand soldier was ordered into action at Ypres. John Condliffe, a W.E.A. lecturer from Christchurch was starting what became a short-lived war. After a confusing night lost in the duckboards and mud of No-Man's-Land he was posted to lookout duty on the Butte de Polygon but returned to the cookhouse for tea at the same time as a German shell arrived. Blinded, he was evacuated to the grandstand at Polygon Wood and then shipped-out to Brockenhurst hospital in England. Here he became friendly with Mrs. Wilson who gave him a large-print copy of Barrie's Homily on Courage to be read when his eyesight returned. Later he walked in the Newforest with her and discussed the possibility of starting a "W.E.A.-type" programme for soldiers. On January 31, 1918, General Richardson appointed J.R. Kirk, a Gisborne lawyer, to be the organiser of an education scheme for the N.Z.E.F. Condliffe had little time for Kirk whom, he said, wanted "to parade men to lectures like a flock of sheep". Although satisfying, Oatlands was apparently not a satisfactory prototype for a larger scheme because on 2 March, 1918, Major-General A.H. Russell of the N.Z. Division wrote to the G.O.C. of the Canadian Corps saying "he had read with interest that a scheme of education had been introduced". Encouraged by this "we wish to do something similar of the same kind in the New Zealand Division". This letter was fowarded to Oliver for reply and, as a result, a copy now resides in university archives in Canada.

The N.Z. scheme was officially launched at a seven-day conference that started April 9, 1918. Thirty people planned curriculum and prepared materials. One highlight was a clash between "voluntarists", led by Condliffe, and "compulsionists" headed by Kirk. At one point Condliffe was told to sit down and remember he was in the army whereupon he retorted that "you can parade me in front of a class but can't make me teach" (see Boshier, 1982). Recalling this, Condliffe (1981) said that if Kirk's "compulsory" scheme had been implemented it would have caused rather than inhibited riots. Moreover, he got revenge by having his friend R.H. Tawney "speak to the General" about the lawyer who knew little about educating adults. Kirk was sent to New Zealand. But Stewart (1919), who replaced Kirk as Director, said the "compulsionist" viewpoint came to prevail.

The Canadian Schemes

H.M. Tory had attended the founding meeting of the World Association for Adult Education, and provided material for the second interim report of the Adult Education Committee. But there is little in his weighty papers suggesting he was influenced by W.E.A. principles. Mansbridge sensed the Canadians were different and, in an article for Atlantic Monthly said "in the British, Australian and New Zealand armies there has been a frank and admitted adoption of the tutorial class method. This is not the case in the Canadian and United States forces although both have given attention to the movement, it has not been actively at work in North America" (1919, p. 281). Like others, Mansbridge thought the Khaki University was "the" Canadian scheme. But had he gone to the front and inspected the University of Vimy Ridge he would have found a flexible adult education operation.

The Khaki University was avowedly academic and quite different to the University of Vimy Ridge which provided a model for the Australians and, to a certain extent, the New Zealanders. The first Canadian classes were organised by Clarence MacKinnon at Witley camp in May 1917. At first the work concerned religious topics but by mid-summer more than 500 men were registered in a variety of "secular" courses. In one interesting interlude MacKinnon took a class to the annual conference of the Fabian socialists where he debated Bernard Shaw on the topic "Is the church necessary for realizing the Christian ideal ?"

On about July 15, 1917 H.M. Tory arrived at Witley camp under the auspices of the Y.M.C.A. who had asked him to assess the need for education in the Canadian army. Tory spoke with MacKinnon, visited other camps and then departed for France. On August 31 he returned to England and started work on a report describing a scheme for immediate needs and demobilisation. He then returned to Canada for the start of the 1917 academic year, immersed himself in affairs at the University of Alberta and sought support for the army education scheme. With Tory in Canada, MacKinnon continued running education at Witley and, with the help of an advisory committee appointed by military authorities, expanded it to other camps. In December 1917 Oliver and MacKinnon established the University of Vimy Ridge in France. By the time Tory returned in January 1918 his presence and scheme had been overtaken by fast-moving developments. Moreover, he insisted on being a civilian and, as a result, found it difficult to penetrate army structures. Later, he admitted that January to October 1918 contained some of the unhappiest days of his life. His authority was challenged, and because of his inability to rein-in feisty chaplains, the self-styled University of Vimy Ridge developed an adult education programme which, in his view, was not sufficiently academic and beyond his control. Just prior to the Armistice an Order-in-Council officially established the Khaki University in the United Kingdom and Tory agreed to join the army and take the rank of Colonel. After a riot in a Canadian camp in Kinmel Park which involved the death of twelve people, any residual misgivings about Tory were set aside and he eventually presided over what became a crucial arm of government demobilisation plans.

CONCLUSION

If the Oatlands programme for limbless soldiers is counted, then it must be concluded that New Zealanders "originated" army education in W.W.I. However, in view of the fact New Zealand commanders sought advice from Canadians, did not appear to regard Oatlands as a prototype for a larger operation, and did not hold their organising conference until April 29, 1918, it is reasonable to conclude that MacKinnon's activities at Witley (May, 1917) constituted the first education "scheme". New Zealanders said they were "pioneers". They were because the Oatlands classes were an interesting antecedent of large schemes that followed. But Oatlands was only an "episode". Thus it appears the Canadians had the first organised education "scheme". It is MacKinnon rather than Tory who deserves credit. Nevertheless it is doubtful that either could have achieved anything without the assistance of revolting soldiers.

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PAPER ABSTRACT

TITLE: An Exploratory Examination of the Educational Delivery System For Adults In Greece

The country of Greece has long been conspicusously absent from the English language literature on adult education. Attempts to systematically and comprehensively understand and articulate adult education in Greece have been lacking even within the country. Consequently, the focus of the present paper represents a portion of a larger in-process, ongoing(for four years) effort to systematically identify, lend some clarity to, and interweave the many threads of adult learning activities within the country.

The specific problem targeted in the present paper is the development of a comprehensive picture of the societal structures which are involved in and provide learning opportunities for adults in Greece-in other words: the delivery system. Governmental as well as nongovernmental and private efforts are covered. Material resources written in the Greek language(and a few translated into French or English), as well as interviews conducted countrywide with professionals (adult educators and others) and citizens served served as sources methods of data collection. Although the research began with a framework for investigating societal structures involved with adult education(e.g. formal, nonformal; governmental, nongovernmental, etc.) as the research progressed it was discovered that often such distinctions were artificial and blurred in practice in Greece. Consequently, any such framework is still in an evolutionary process.

The emphasis of the paper, however, is addressed not only to the product, of the research but more important , to the process by which the research was organized, designed, conducted, cross-verified, and followed-up. Particularly relevant are the lessons learned and insights discovered which might help present or future investigators interested in exploring the adult education enterprise in other countries,particularly those on which very little is written.

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An Exploratory Examination of the Educational Delivery System for Adults in Greece

Marcie Boucouvalas and Iris Drower[1]

Introduction

The country of Greece has long been conspicuously absent from the English language literature on adult education. Attempts to systematically and comprehensively understand and articulate adult education in Greece have been lacking even within the country. Consequently, the focus of the present paper represents a portion of a larger in-process, ongoing (for four years) effort to systematically identify, lend some clarity to, and interweave the many threads of adult learning activities within the country.

The specific problem targeted in the present paper is the development of a comprehensive picture of the societal structures which are involved in and provide learning opportunities for adults in Greece--in other words: the delivery system. Governmental as well as nongovernmental and private efforts were covered. Material resources written in the Greek language (and a few translated into French or English), as well as interviews conducted countrywide with professionals (adult educators and others) and citizens served as sources/methods of data collection. Although the research began with a framework for investigating societal structures involved with adult education (e.g., formal, nonformal, informal; governmental, nongovernmental, etc.), as the research progressed it was discovered that often such distinctions were artificial and blurred in practice in Greece. Consequently, any such framework is still in an evolutionary process.

It seems imperative to stress that no material or human resource seems to have undertaken a comprehensive grasp of all societal structures involved in adult education. The research has practical relevance, therefore, to the country of Greece, as well as to others trying to understand the country's adult education enterprise.

The emphasis of the paper, however, is addressed not only to the product of the research but more important to the process. Particularly relevant are the lessons learned and insights discovered which might help present or future investigators interested in exploring the adult education enterprise in other countries, especially those on which very little is written.

Essentially, one becomes an explorer or groundbreaker in trying to slowly piece a puzzle together. Consequently, the importance of this research lies not just in the results obtained, but in the contribution it might make to methodological pursuits.

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Framework and Background

Due to the complexity of the dynamics by which we came to interface with each other and collaborate on the presentation, we have chosen to first offer the reader a background chronicle of our individual involvement with and approach to researching the education of adults in Greece. Our individual accounts will include our own framework as well as methodology and perspective with which we pursued our investigation before presenting our "pooled" findings and discussion.

Drower first visited Greece during the summer of 1981, primarily as a recreational venture.She became so immersed, involved, and interested in the country that during summer of 1982 she returned to Greece to engage in an independent study for her Master's degree program in Higher and Adult Education with an International emphasis. Her primary task was to develop a list/directory of adult education agencies in the country. As she became involved in this venture, interest burgeoned in learning even more about the education of adults in Greece, and she eventually returned again during the summer of 1984.

Since she had initially prepared herself to experience the country by learning about the culture, economics, politics, etc., such information became of even greater interest as she continued to acclimate herself to the country, language, and business procedures. She also enlisted assistance in translating and understanding the Greek literature and language, as well as starting Greek lessons herself. As the inquiry progressed, adult education came to be defined as a process of organized activities on a formal or informal basis with a conscientious effort toward self-fulfillment, decisionmaking, acquisition of skills, and identifying problems within that particular society. Frameworks employed to better understand and inquire into Greek adult education included a ten point guideline system from Hall and Kidd (1978) as well as a "six core areas of adult education" scheme from Axford (1980). Daily logs were kept, contacts continued to branch out, and thoughts, as well as materials collected from interviews, were continually organized and pieced together until a picture started forming. With a basic framework established in the previous summer, 1984 was devoted to filling in missing links, reassembling, intertwining and building a more comprehensive picture. In order to get to this point, of course, a review of the literature was conducted which retrieved an article by Boucouvalas (1982b) about her research on adult education in Greece, initially conducted during the summer of 1981 (and continuing). Drower contacted Boucouvalas, discussions and interchanges followed, and during summer of 1984 they orchestrated a meeting with each other in Greece. In the fall, Drower suggested that they collaborate on a paper for the Adult Education Research Conference.

As a Greek-American, Boucouvalas's interest in adult education in Greece dates to the late 1960's when she first began to identify herself as an adult educator. Interest peaked further in the mid-1970's when a literature review revealed that, with

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the exception of a few reports from UNESCO consultants to Greece, the country seemed absent from the literature on international adult education. Discussion with a variety of Greek resources over the ensuing years revealed that the country did indeed appear to have support structures and processes to facilitate learning opportunities and activities for adults. Moreover, learners as their own agents seemed much in evidence.

By 1980, Boucouvalas decided to write to the Ministry of Education to express her concern about the relative absence of Greece from the English language literature on adult education, requested information on English and Greek language materials not available in the United States, and to propose a study of adult education in Greece. She received an official invitation from the Government to come to Greece to investigate the topic, and an introduction to the then National Director of Adult Education, Petros Kebayiopoulos. Summer of 1981 was spent researching adult education throughout the country. These efforts, reported elsewhere (Boucouvalas, 1982a, 1982b), concentrated on areas either designed or coordinated by the Ministry of Education, or of which the Ministry was knowledgeable. Data was also collected, however, on involvement of other governmental bodies as well as the private sector. Data gathered on the socioeconomic, political and cultural context, in addition to the historical and geographic background, laid a foundation for the inquiry. Concerted observations, in-person interviews, field notes, and other tools were used. Much Greek language material was available only in the country (archival data, statistical reports, legislation and statutory regulations, proceedings, speeches, media coverage, and other sources). During 1982 and 1983, literature reviews were maintained and expanded to include resources from European Economic Community and a host of other "fugitive" documents not available through conventional abstracting and retrieval services. Communications were maintained with Greek colleagues, as well as with new human catalysts of the adult education movement which came to the forefront after the change in government during 1981-82.

A subsequent invitation was received by Boucouvalas to participate in a working conference of Greek adult educators during August, 1984 in Greece. The visit to Greece also enabled her to further update, expand, and cross-verify ongoing research.

A persistent question was considered in preparation for as well as in conduct of the inquiry: How does one go about researching the education of adults (broadly defined) in a country where little is written, where adult education as a movement has been piece meal, and where no one body has taken responsibility for coordinating, understanding, or systematically studying all countrywide efforts. Advise was sought and received from human resources such as Roby Kidd and Edward Townsend-Coles. Guidance was also gleaned from the articles and monographs resulting from the CROASAEE (Comparative Research in Organization and Structure of Adult Education in Europe) projects, although the methodology monographs were not completed until 1983 (Maydl et al., 1983a, 1983b). Also, the work of Peters et al. (1980) was useful. Although equipped with a variety of typologies of

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adult education it soon became evident that it was difficult to conform this structure to Greek reality. Consequently such information was employed more as a mental guideline.

Adult education was given a very broad definition and viewed as a movement permeating society-at-large in Greece, as a dynamic process whereby adults learn, as well as a program or activities from agencies, institutions, organizational structures in Greek society; however, this presentation will focus only on societal structures available for adults to avail themselves of learning opportunities--in other words the delivery system.

The Delivery System

The social structures which support education for adults in Greece are extensive, however not well coordinated or organized. One might characterize the delivery system a la´ Titmus (1983) as more of a collective label than an organized unity or movement. Absent are adult education graduate programs, research centers, professional associations, or foundations to contribute support, lend a leadership function, or lend unification to a professional identity as an adult educator or catalyze (or even recognize) adult education as a movement.

Although the immediate past National Director of Adult Education (1950-81), Petros Kehayiopoulos made concerted attempts to educate colleagues in other ministries, as well as other areas, as to their involvement in a greater whole (i.e. adult education movement), he was without the benefit of a national governmental framework or ideology to undergird his efforts. That picture has changed since 1981 when the PASOK (PanHellenic Socialist Party) government took office. Their platform is founded on a principle of "active participation of the citizen." Efforts and attempts to lend more coordination and common identity among those working with adult learners has been further expanded under the leadership of George Papandreou. Still the tapestry is yet to be woven as many disparate threads exist often without knowledge of the other´s existence.

In the limited space available, an attempt has been made to give the reader a sense of the fabric which appears to be emerging from the research.

Given that a participatory philosophy is currently permeating the country, this theme can be witnessed within the Ministry of Education´s efforts in popular education or the worker self-management and participation focus of ELKEPA (Greek Productivity Center). Involvement of all the people is further reflected in the formation of the Council for the Equality of the sexes and the myriad of educational efforts directed to women, or with the emphasis given to agro-industrial cooperatives, the latter having been explored elsewhere (Boucouvalas, 1985).

To continue the discussion in the vein of "special populations" or client systems, the following groups are discernible: Agricultural workers, migrant workers, gypsies, women, youth, older people, disabled, employees (workers and managers), unemployed, professionals, parents, consumers.

One might add the rural peasant or other common citizen, especially since the popular education efforts of the Ministry of Education are particularly directed toward education for "critical consciousness," using in fact a Freirian framework.

Each of the special populations or client systems noted above is serviced by numerous operating systems, an exhaustible rendition of which is outside the scope of these few pages but available from the authors.

For example, for agricultural workers extension as well as co-operative education proliferates. Coordinating and servicing agents include: Ministry of Agriculture, Vocational and Technical training centers, Co-operative College, Farm Schools, Agricultural Bank of Greece, National Tobacco Board, Hellenic Cotton Board, Hellenic Currant Board, and others.

With regard to employee education, most of the 20-odd Ministries have training and development activities. Moreover, the trade unions are extremely active in worker education. Finally, ELKEPA (the Greek Productivity Center) has recently organized a new Management Institute to develop and coordinate management development and education. This action is a first for Greece--where most businesses and industries have been traditionally family operated and controlled. The Board of Directors for the Institute represent private as well as governmental enterprises.

OAED (after a Greek acronym), a body of the Ministry of Labor, offers educational and development services to the unemployed, and new attention to the disabled. In fact, employers are now being offered incentives to hire the disabled, another first for Greece.

Most social structures constituting the delivery system for the education of adults are governmentally based or operated for example, museums, libraries, health and welfare agencies, military, prisons, churches, and the mass media to mention a few. The private sector, however,is also a strong force and historically dominated the adult education scene in Greece at the turn of the century until about 1940 or 1950. Many of the cultural institutes--such as the Parnassus Literary Society established in the late 1800's--are still in existence. Others proliferate offering art, music, dance, community programs, and other services. Moreover, over 600 language training institutes have arisen, although many Greeks (officials and citizens) lament the uneven quality of services with little quality control available. Also within the private sector are the professional associations such as those for mathematicians, engineers, chemists, and others--but none for adult educators.

This very abbreviated discussion represents only a sampling of the breadth and pervasiveness of the delivery system for the education of adults in Greece. Attention will now be directed to the methodological and process issues involved in conducting such an inquiry and to insight gained and lessons learned which might have implications or relevance for others.

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Insights and Implications

An exploratory, yet comprehensive and systematic investigation of an entire country and delivery system for adult education seems to require an open focus and flexible style. A variety of stances for "objective" to "totally absorbed" seem critical. Alternating between focusing on a particular aspect under study and letting go to become more diffuse so that one might absorb the entire "gestalt" is crucial. An abbreviated sampling of insights gleaned follows:

Give yourself enough time
Reflect often and "critically"
Evaluate yourself daily
Educate yourself along with the masses and become immersed in the culture
Keep an open mind neither accepting nor rejecting evidence prematurely
Add and delete: objectives, questions as some become disfunctional or nonfunctional
Don´t get impatient, frustrated, or imbued with the "rightness" of your own values
Universe - tap into the commonalities humanity shares
Learn from each contact and experience--even negative ones
Tie it all together.

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER: Adulthood: Definitions and Perspectives

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The purpose for this study was to develop a clearer definition of "adulthood" from the perspectives of men and women. Interviews and the techniques of ground-theory data collection and analysis were used. Men and women, when children, perceive adults similarly. There is some divergence in those perceptions during adolescence and into adulthood when challenges to authority are made. The authors found that adults do not consider age the sole, or even primary, determinant of adulthood. Adults use their responsibilities and to a lesser degree their social roles as determinants. A resistance to being labeled an adult was expressed. Recommendations for how these definitions and perspectives can be utilized by adult education practioners (teachers, counselors, managers, etc.) are provided. Suggestions for additional research are made.

ADULTHOOD: DEFINITIONS AND PERSPECTIVES

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Background and Introduction

Special characteristics of research concerning adult education distinguish it from other educational research. One of these distinguishing characteristics is the "lack of agreement on what constitutes an adult." (Long: 7-8). Yet how can this population be studied or served without knowing who comprises it? Historically the criteria that researchers have selected for defining adulthood have been, at best, vague and ambivalent. Age has often been the only criteria for determining adult subjects for research and the only rationale for considering an individual an adult. Many studies cite the ages of 16, 18, or 21 as the age one enters adulthood. This is centered around the theme that one is legally able to vote, drink, be drafted, or is covered by a piece of federal legislation. As Patersen points out, "Adults are adults, in the last analysis, because that are older than children." (Patersen: 10).

The primary purpose for this study was to develop a clear picture of this period labeled adulthood from the perspectives of men and women, to look at similarities as well as differences between these groups, and to reveal their perceptions of this time of life. There were also two secondary purposes:

1. To develop strategies for people dealing with pre-adults, such as teachers, counselors, or recreation specialists, that enhance facilitation of client or student entry into this time of life, and;

2. To assist those dealing with adults in areas such as counseling, personnel management, or teaching to better understand this time of life and to provide improved services to their clients or students.

Darkenwald and Merriam have noted that age, psychological maturity, and social roles seem to be important in determining who is an adult (Darkenwald and Merriam: 38). Smith states that "the person who regards himself or herself as an adult and has assumed the responsibilities associated with adulthood (worker, spouse, parent) is considered to be an adult" (Smith: 38). Knowles identifies four salient features of adulthood relative to learning:

1. As a person matures his or her self-concept moves from one of a dependent personality toward one of a self-directing human being;

2. An adult accumulates a growing reservoir of experience, a rich resource for learning. For an adult, personal experiences establish self-identity and so are highly valued;

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3. The readiness of an adult to learn is closely related to the developmental tasks of his or her social role; and

4. There is a change in time perspective as individuals mature, from one of future application of knowledge to immediacy of application; thus an adult is more problem-centered than subject-centered in learning (Knowles: 44-45)

Many of the institutions in our society, such as universities, colleges, corporations, vocational-technical schools, businesses, volunteer organizations, and libraries assume that a large portion of their clientele with whom they interact on a daily basis are functioning as adults in our society.

It is assumed that when someone passes a magic age (16, 18, 21, etc.) he or she possesses all of the characteristics that are assigned to an adult. Darkenwald and Merriam point out, "Young children are dependent upon others for their well-being; adolescents exhibit patterns of both dependent and independent behavior. The adult, however, can be distinguished from a child or adolescent by his or her acceptance of the social roles and functions that define adulthood. The roles of wage earner, marriage partner, parent, decision maker, and citizen all denote the independent characteristic of adulthood" (Darkenwald and Merriam: 77). The definition and delineation of these social roles and functions is an area that is as unclear as the expectations are varied that adults have of themselves in them.

Methodology

The purpose for this study was to develop a clearer picture of the time of life called adulthood. This was undertaken through the techniques of grounded-theory data collection and analysis (Glaser and Strauss). Data were gathered and analyzed simultaneously from the beginning of the study. The subjects for the study consisted of seventy adults between the ages of 22 and 76. There were 38 females and 32 males. The data for the study were gathered by the interview technique. The initial twelve interviews were open-ended. The data transcripts were analyzed for tentative categories or analytical concepts that are important in understanding the phenomenon under study (Long: 71). The initial twelve interviews were the source of the preliminary findings and discussion presented in this paper. The remaining 58 interviews were conducted using information obtained from the first twelve for the formation of questions. Each interview lasted from one to three hours.

Findings

The results are presented in the order that the questions elicited them: perceptions of others as adults, the transition to adulthood, and perceptions of selves as adults.

The subjects remembered perceiving adults as having authority, power and control. Moreover, they could do what they wanted to do. A majority of subjects also perceived adults as being loving. Yet this response did not occur with the frequency of the previous descriptors. Initially subjects recalled impressions of their parents and grandparents. Other adults identified as having these characteristics were teachers and friends' parents.

The women and men interviewed identified their transitions into adulthood, usually during adolescence, when they began to challenge or even reject the authority of adults. The degree of rebellion varied individually. In addition, there was the realization that adults are not infallible. To help accept themselves as adults they began to assume responsibility for themselves while remaining outside the "establishment."

Assuming responsibility for themselves was one of the first characteristics of adulthood. The other most frequently mentioned characteristics were being independent, using good judgement, maturity, and, after assuming responsibility for self, assuming responsibility for others.

Less common perceptions of selves as adults included humility, being a role model for others, stability, having moral convictions and standing by them, self respect, being someone feared by others, and accepting their own mistakes without attempting to blame others for the consequences. One subject contrasted adults with children, "Adults have habits and routines and are other-centered while children have a new world daily and are self-centered"

Throughout the interview process the subjects identified memorable events that indicated to them that they were being perceived as adults by others as well as by themselves. These events included driving, being given keys to the house, getting a job, death of a parent, drinking liquor, moving out ("adult on trial"), marriage, and divorce.

Finally, many of the people interviewed seemed to know when others are adults and to know that they are, themselves, assuming adult responsibilities, but they do not "feel" like adults yet.

Discussion

The definitions and perceptions revealed by the participants in this study deny the use of age as the sole, or even primary, determinant of adulthood. In contrast, the definitions and perceptions of the subjects generally confirm the use of responsibilities and, to a lesser degree, the use of social roles as determinants. Perceiving oneself as an adult is clearly crucial. It colors all human interaction and endeavors.

Few obvious distinctions between men and women were found. There were similar childhood perceptions of adults. Distinctions began to appear when the subjects recalled their transitions into adulthood. The challenge to authority occurred consistently during male adolescence. Women issued this challenge not only during adolescence but also around particular events, such as returning to school or divorce. This means that the challenge is carried into adulthood. It could also mean that some developmental tasks remain to be resolved. One subject defined adulthood as the midlife transition, "I guess you know you are an adult when you stop to look at your life and realize that you have already lived longer than you are going to live."

Both men and women distinguish themselves from children and adolescents by their acceptance of the social roles and functions mentioned previously. This acceptance is not unconditional, however. Pre-adults and adults must learn to accept themselves in these roles.

Pre-adults can learn to demonstrate their readiness for adulthood by assuming responsibility for themselves, by initiating the use of symbols of responsibility: returning the car unscratched, not losing the keys to the house, keeping a part-time job, etc. There are skills that can be taught to make these efforts successful.

Perceptions of adults that go unchallenged from childhood can cause conflicts in adults when they undertake new responsibilities and roles. If a teacher is an adult and students are not, how can I, an adult, go to school? If adults provide for children and I am being provided for by a spouse, how can I be an adult? If adults are bosses how can I, a non-supervisor, be an adult (or how can I, an adult, become a supervisor)?

These are three examples of sources of conflict between perceptions of self as adult and adult responsibilities and roles. These are issues that can be addressed by teachers, counselors and managers.

Less easily addressed perhaps are the standards adults set for themselves. "An adult is someone who is in control of himself, has a good opinion of himself, and can cope with situations." Or "somebody that [sic] feels very sure of themselves, who they are, what they want..."

There remains much to investigate. Adult educators should continue to move away from definitions of adulthood that consist solely of age and/or roles. These become limits on development and acceptance of self. The events that are symbols of adulthood should be considered in terms of developmental tasks. Are there greater destinctions between male and female definitions and perceptions of adults? Are there cultural distinctions?

Finally, perhaps the reluctance to admit to adulthood can be examined beyond an assumed reluctance to accept responsibility; or are we destined to live like Jules Feiffer's character, whose cradle to grave cry was, "But I'm not ready yet!"?

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER Patterns of Persistence and Non-Persistence of Non-Traditionally-Aged Undergraduate Women

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Colleges nation-wide have suffered from declining enrollments during recent years. Consequently, more concern and efforts have been directed to issues relating to retention or persistence of students. Demographic trends reveal that in years to come, the undergraduate student population will be constituted of proportionately more non-traditionally-aged learners and more women. The challenge of effectively educating - recruiting and retaining - adult women must become a priority. This study examines patterns and factors related to retention/persistence at a non-traditional college program geared toward women. Correlates of persistence are identified and implications are explored.

PATTERNS OF PERSISTENCE AND NON-PERSISTENCE OF NON-TRADITIONALLY-AGED UNDERGRADUATE WOMEN

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Introduction and Purpose

As a result of declining enrollment during recent years, United States colleges have scrutinized their recruitment and admissions procedures. New strategies aimed at sustaining or increasing enrollment have been designed and implemented and colleges are awaiting the results. Recruitment of students is but one piece of the picture: once students are recruited and admitted, they must be retained.

The challenge of effectively educating (recruiting and retaining) adult learners must become, by necessity, a top priority for higher education institutions during this decade and into the future. In 1978, 37.5% of total national undergraduate college enrollment was made up of adults (25 years and older). It is projected that in 1990, 47% will be adults (Haponski, 1983). Women will continue to gain proportionately greater access to higher education. Colleges whose mission is to educate women, either exclusively or concurrently with men, face a greater responsibilitity to equip adult women with the competencies necessary for productive and satisfying enterprise in their personal as well as professional lives. Higher education institutions will need to extend their efforts in order to competitively recruit adult women and to retain them as degree-seeking learners.

The College of St. Catherine, a private women's college in St. Paul, Minnesota began its Weekend College program in 1979. The program was developed as a result of the College's recognition that today's women are increasingly educationally and career-oriented. Weekend College offers students the opportunity to earn a college degree by attending classes every other weekend. Students ranging from 19 to 63 years of age attend Weekend College with the median age being 34 years. Time since students' previous involvement in formal education ranges from less than one year to 41 years with the median of five years leave from school. Twenty percent (20%) of the students have had no previous college experience. Although students can earn a B.A. degree in four years through Weekend College, most students attend on a part-time basis taking one or two courses per trimester.

This research examines comparative profiles of persisters and non-persisters in Weekend College at the College of St. Catherine in order to generate data which will enable Weekend College to maximize its student retention by increasing the rate of student persistence.

Traditionally, persistence has been defined as completion of the baccalaureate degree within a four year period of time. Because the norm in Weekend College is part-time attendance and because the lifestyle of adult students (family, job, financial responsibilities, etc.) sometimes necessitates a temporary leave of absence, an alternative definition of persistence is warranted. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, persistence shall be defined as continuing registration for and completion of courses in the pursuit of a baccalaureate degree. Registration need not

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be full-time and temporary leaves of absence may occur as long as the student returns and continues work towards the degree. Non-persistence occurs when a student withdraws thereby discontinuing work towards the degree.

Objectives and Method

This study identifies differential characteristics of students who persist and those who do not. Data was collected from student admission files and student transcripts. Specific objectives are as follows: 1) To identify demographic and academic profile data of Weekend College students who persist and those who do not including age, high school performance, previous college, G.P.A., and leave taking patterns. 2) To assess whether significant differences exist between the informational profiles of persisters and non-persisters.

In order to establish informational profiles for comparison purposes, the Weekend College student population was divided into two categories: persisters and non-persisters. The category of persisters includes a) students who have taken one or more leaves of absence who returned and graduated or are continuing to attend and b) students who without taking a leave have graduated or are continuing to attend. The category of non-persisters includes students who have withdrawn from Weekend College with or without a leave of absence(s) prior to withdrawal. Samples for the categories were formulated through a random selection process. The overall random sample consisted of 297 students: 165 "persisters" and 132 "non-persisters".

Findings

Because the random sample was selected through a process which controlled for and insured the adequate representation of all sub-categories, it must be remembered that the data reported are useful for comparison of persisters and non-persisters in relation to the studied variables (age, high school performance, G.P.A., leave of absence history, etc.). Hence, the reported data are not descriptive of the Weekend College population as a whole, but rather of differences and similarities between the persisters and non-persisters in Weekend College and persistence rates quoted are strictly relative in nature.

The age distribution of the sample was as follows: 7% were 18-24 years of age, 51% were 25-35 years of age, 27% were 36-45 years of age and 15% were 46 years of age or older. Relative rate of persistence was the highest for those aged 36-45 years at 61%. Students 46 years and over persisted at a relative average rate of 58% while the 18-24 year old group persisted at 55% and the 25-35 year old group persisted at 52%.

As is typical when working with non-traditionally-aged college students, high school performance data was not consistently available for students in the sample. PSAT and ACT scores were unavailable to the extent that data analysis is not meaningful. Percentile of high school rank was available for 59% of the students. About one-quarter of the students fell under the 50%ile of their high school class. Another one-quarter was in the 50-70%ile range, 28% were in the 71-90%ile range and 21% were within the 91-100%ile. Relative rate of persistence improved as class rank percentile increased: students below the 50%ile averaged a 43% rate of persistence, students in the 51-70%ile a 47% rate, students in the 71-90%ile a 57% rate and students above the 90%ile a 64% persistence rate.

Twenty-one percent (21%) of the sample had not attended another college previous to the College of St. Catherine. Forty-two percent (42%) had attended one other college previous to the College of St. Catherine, 26% had attended two colleges and 11% attended 3 or 4 colleges previously. Relative rate of persistence increased as the number of previous colleges attended increased. Students who had not attended another college previously persisted at the relative rate of 37%; students with 1 previous college at the rate of 54%; students with 2 previous colleges at the rate of 65%; students with 3 previous colleges at the rate of 70%; and students with 4 previous colleges at the rate of 89%. It is likely that this reflects the increase in momentum experienced as students accrue credits and approach completion of their program.

Of those students reporting attendance at another college(s) previous to Weekend College, 33% had transferred between 1 and 5 courses to the College of St. Catherine Weekend College, 15% transferred 6-10 courses, 21% transferred 11-15 courses, 20% transferred 16-20 courses, and 11% transferred 21 or more courses. As the number of courses transferred increased, the relative rate of persistence also increased: students transferring 1-5 courses averaged a persistence rate of 45%; students with 6-10 courses a rate of 58%; students with 11-15 courses a rate of 70%; students with 16-20 courses 74%; and students with 21 or more courses, 78%. Again, it appears that the further along a student is in her college career, the more likely she is to persist.

Table I below identifies the distribution of current cumulative G.P.A. for students of the sample and the relative rate of persistence for each G.P.A. increment.

Current Cumulative G.P.A.	Percent of Sample	Relative Persistence Rate (%)
1.5 - 1.99	2	20
2.0 - 2.49	14	37
2.5 - 2.99	31	66
3.0 - 3.49	34	67
3.5 - 4.00	19	64

Table I

These data indicate that the likelihood of persistence improves dramatically for students with a G.P.A. 2.5 and above. Thus, current cumulative G.P.A. appears to hold predictive ability for persistence of Weekend College students.

Sixty-two percent (62%) of the students had never taken a leave of absence. Twenty-nine percent (29%) of the students took 1 leave, 8% took 2 leaves and 1% took 3 or 4 leaves. It is interesting to note that, of all students taking leaves, 76% took only one. On the average, a leave of absence lasts 1.9 trimesters. Persisters and non-persisters did not differ significantly as to when leaves were taken nor in the average length of leaves. Students who had not taken a leave of absence persisted at the relative rate of 60% while students taking one leave persisted at the relative rate of 42%, and those taking 2, 3, or 4 leaves had a relative persistence rate of 67%. As noted above, of all students taking leaves of absence, 76% took only one. It is this group, those taking only one leave of absence, which has the poorest relative retention rate - 42%. It appears likely that a leave of absence for these students is more likely to lead to eventual withdrawal from college. Furthermore, it seems that once a student returns from a leave of absence and decides at some point that they need to take another, they are more likely to return and persist, for it is this student which demonstrates the best relative rate of persistence.

The reason why a student takes a leave of absence is not consistently recorded in the student's record. Approximately one-half of the students who had taken one or more leaves of absence, had a reason noted on their record. "Financial reasons", cited for 11% of the leaves, was the most commonly recorded reason. "Job responsibilities" accounted for another 9.2% of the leaves. "Health/medical" (3%), "family responsibilities" (3%), "maternity" (3%), "moving" (2%), "travel" (2%), and "attend another college" (1%) were also cited.

Conclusions and Implications

Both demographics and current trends in higher education indicate the increasing challenge faced by institutions of higher learning to provide educational programs which equip non-traditionally-aged college students who are women with competencies needed for effective functioning in today's and tomorrow's complex world. In order to provide women the opportunity to develop these competencies, colleges and universities must not only attract women to their programs, they must retain them as degree-seeking learners who eventually graduate. This need is especially crucial for the College of St. Catherine in light of its service to non-traditionally-aged college students who are women.

The College of St. Catherine has some attributes which research literature indicates typically exert a positive impact upon student retention/persistence such as a relatively small enrollment (Astin & Kent, 1983), private auspices (Bynum & Thompson, 1983), and a liberal arts emphasis (Daubman & Johnson, 1982). These are attributes which the College can and should emphasize to its public in order to continually strengthen its image in attracting and retaining students. In addition, the College must address the following areas:

* A data management system is needed which effectively enables Weekend College to track students. This system must enable the early identification of potential non-persisters. The data management system should provide ready access to the constellation of current enrollment early in each trimester: new students, continuing students, students returning from leave, students taking leave of absence, and students withdrawing from Weekend College. The data management system must also comprehensively track the reason(s) for withdrawal and leave.

* College personnel (faculty and staff) must become more involved in the student's decision to withdraw or take a leave of absence. Recent experience at the College in the area of admissions has demonstrated the importance of personal contact from college faculty and staff with prospective students. This same personalized communication is essential with current students if they are to be retained. Efforts should be focused on identifying the reasons underlying the student's decision to take a leave or withdraw and rendering support to them in carrying out their decision. It is far more likely that students taking leave will return if a channel of communication is maintained between student and college.

* Weekend College must develop a comprehensive retention plan which enables it to support and encourage student persistence. This plan should address the following: 1) Identification of students who may be prone to leave/withdrawal. Ongoing contact and planning should occur with students who are: undecided regarding their major, below the 50%ile of their high school class rank, have current cumulative G.P.A. below 2.5, or taking their first leave of absence. 2) Design and provision of support services which prevent the necessity of leaves or withdrawal and reduce the length of leaves.

3) Development of options students may select as alternatives to a leave of absence or withdrawal (perhaps independent study, correspondence courses, contract learning, etc.). 4) Continuation of ongoing contact and provision of support services to students while they are on leave. 5) Services which facilitate a student's re-entry from leave.

* Weekend College must continue to expand and improve opportunities for students to maximize their social and academic integration into both Weekend College and the College of St. Catherine at large. Tinto's Model (and research validations of it) and the profile data of persisters attest to the importance of social and academic integration: the greater the student's level of social and academic integration, the more likely she is to persist. Social and academic integration of students can be nurtured by: opportunities for informal, out-of-class faculty-student interaction; opportunities for peer interaction custom-designed for Weekend College students' needs; a strong student-centered academic advising program which encourages faculty-student contact and student interaction; and easy accessibility to College services.

In conclusion, it is important that higher education administrators, faculty and staff begin to perceive student persistence and retention as long-term phenomena especially in regard to non-traditionally-aged students. Temporary leaves of absence are a necessity for many adult students who have major commitments in other areas of their lives such as family, employment, and community affairs. An orientation toward life-long learning engenders an acceptance of occasional leaves of absence as part of the process. Colleges must remain flexible by making it comfortable for students to leave and re-enter as necessary, and by creating supportive services to facilitate students' re-entry. Student persistence and retention go hand in hand. It must be remembered that a college's primary "hold power" rests in the student's identification with the college. The student who chooses her college because of its clear image, values and program is the most likely to persist and, therefore, to be retained (Cope & Hannah, 1975).

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ADULT EDUCATION AS POLITICAL DETOXIFICATION
TOWARDS POLITICAL LITERACY FOR ADULTS

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The Felt-Needs Rationale as Adult Education Orthodoxy

There is in adult education at the present time an a-curricular orthodoxy concerning appropriate programmatic offerings for adults. Briefly stated, such an orthodoxy maintains that adult education is concerned with meeting the felt needs of adults. In effect, the responsibility for developing curricula has been ceded entirely to learners. In the name of a democratic, person-centered, humanism we declare that adults are self-directed learners and that our task as facilitators of learning is to assist these adults to realise the goals they have set for themselves. The educator becomes a facilitator or resource person engaged in a non-directive release of latent learning potential. Adult learning thus becomes a joyful, wholly fulfilling experience characterised by a perfect match of educator intent and learner need.

This felt needs rationale is adaptive, reactive and pragmatic. It is a consumer oriented approach to education with the educator cast in the role of marketing technician. The educator's role becomes that of accurately determining felt needs and then planning effective educational formats to assist adults meet those needs. There is an abdication of the educator's responsibility for making curricular choices so that courses on fascism, aerobics, computers for business use, peace education and creative divorce exhibit an essential isomorphism. There is no suggestion that significant personal learning may involve anxiety, pain, doubt or ambiguity, or that prompting adults to consider ways of thinking and living other than those they have uncritically accepted might be disturbing, threatening and met by considerable resistance.

In this paper the felt needs rationale is rejected as an acceptable means by which programmers arrange their curricular offerings. The encouragement of a measure of political literacy among adults is proposed as the chief curriculum development task facing adult educators today.

Adult Education as Political Detoxification

Detoxification refers to the ridding of the body of poisonous and dependency inducing substances and encouraging the individual to live without the benefit of artificial stimuli. It is used to describe the treatment of alcoholics and other drug dependent individuals. As employed in this paper, the term political detoxification describes the process by which adults are weaned away from dependence on, and adherence to, simplistic explanations of complex political reality. The process of political detoxification would assist adults to realise that the simplistic explanations and representations of political realities apparent in television and the press are frequently offered by vested party interests, reflective of an unchallenged ideological orthodoxy, and culturally specific. The mass media, sometimes deliberately, sometimes unwittingly, tend to offer adults distorting, crudely simplistic, personalised

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analyses of political issues. A major task of adult education must be to remove this perceptual poison from individuals' minds and to nurture in them a scepticism of simplistic, ideologically biased, explanations of the world. Essential to this process is encouraging adults to consider interpretations of political matters other than those generally offered by politicians and commentators.

The recent Presidential election has afforded numerous examples of the way in which the media can substitute the personalisation, trivialisation and perpetuation of pleasing images for any kind of objective analysis of the merits of differing ideologies. During the Democratic campaign, for example, the contest was cast in terms of shorthand, abbreviated images of each candidate's selling point. Jackson was the radical peacemaker, Hart was newness and youth, and Mondale was responsible experience. In the Reagan-Mondale contest itself, the Republican campaign managers have acknowledged their reliance on creating images of leadership, prosperity, family and patriotism. James Lake, press secretary for the campaign, declared that for a candidate to be elected he or she must define a vision of America on T.V. and persuade an audience to subscribe to that vision (New York Times, 23rd September, 1984, p.32). The first commercials for the Reagan campaign contributed toward the generation of this vision through the projection of a series of images of happy families, tranquil harbors and sunlit suburban neighborhoods. This was followed later in the campaign by an 18 minute documentary style advertisment portraying the ecstatic welcome afforded President Reagan at the Republican national convention. The advertisment featured Reagan's address to the convention, with the camera placed below his podium thereby stressing his height and physical strength, and closed with a passionate rendition of "America the Beautiful". The New York Times described the commercial as "overpoweringly warm, patriotic, nostalgic and confident" and reported that the advertising trade considered it to be "the most luxurious, symphonic and technically proficient political commercial ever made" (14th September, 1984, A18).

Politicians view the medium of television as uniquely suited to presenting comforting and appealing images designed to create impressions of firmness, compassion or prosperity in the public mind. David Gergen, director of communications at the White House until 1984, has declared that the government must set the agenda of news and public discussion of policy issues. It cannot let the press assume this responsibility (The Village Voice, Sept. 18th, 1984, p.10). The White House admits to coining an issue of the day which will be spoken to by officials at all levels of the administration on the same day, irrespective of questions from reporters and journalists. In the months leading up to the election events such as President Reagan's visit to Eire, or his attendance at the D-Day 40th anniversary celebrations, were presented to the media by the White House communications aides as campaign commercials in which the President appeared, alternately, as 'man of the people' and as the reified, strong leader of the free peoples of the world.

Other examples of these practices are not hard to find. In the 1982 election for the Governor of New York state, for example, the Republic opponent to Mario Cuomo ran three minute commercials which comprised pictures of him (Lehman) jogging, playing with his children and chatting to hard hat, blue collar workers. There was no voice over, no policy message flashed on the screen, simply up-tempo music accompanying pictures of Lehman photographed in appealing situations. In Britain, the 1979 election which brought Prime Minister Thatcher to power was notable for her hiring an advertising agency (Saachi and Saachi) to 'sell' her to the electorate. They advised her to lower her voice to a more modulated tone, to speak more slowly so as to appear less strident, and to concentrate her funds not on espousing policy, but on being photographed in visually memorable and appealing settings which would be reported in evening news broadcasts and featured in the daily newspapers. In 1984, in a style reminiscent of that used in the Reagan campaign, she was photographed facing ecstatic and adoring audiences, and in the company alternately of show business personalities and world leaders. For both candidates, the public's perception of their having successfully waged a war (in Argentina and Grenada) allowed the media consultants to emphasise their strength, patriotic leadership, and apparent impregnability.

In British politics, in fact, the Falklands conflict of 1982 is an excellent example of a political act in which the government of the day was effectively able to set the agenda for public debate so powerfully that any questioning of the wisdom of governmental actions was labelled treason. The day after a BBC news program ('Panorama') broadcast interviews with some M.P.'s who were critical of the government's actions, the network was accused of broadcasting treasonable programs. In the most widely read newspaper of the day, the 'Sun', a form of Orwellian newspeak seemed to take over the headlines. When the British navy sank the Argentinian cruiser the 'Belgrano' outside the limit of the war zone set by Britain, no query about the legitimacy of this act was raised and the 'Sun' carried a one word headline - "Gotcha!". Only now, three years after this act, are questions being raised concerning its wisdom by members of parliament. It is interesting to note that in the Falklands war journalists complained of censorship by commanders on the spot, and that in the Grenada war reporters were denied the conventional opportunity to accompany the invading forces and record their actions.

Political Literacy

Specifications of political literacy by adult educators are few and far between but are essential to the generation of useful discussion. To this writer, the following conditions appear to be necessary and sufficient conditions of such literacy:

> adults exhibit a scepticism and mistrust of simplistic views and explanations presented to them by politicians. Justifications for policies, interpretations of conflicts, and explanations of the acts of opponents offered by politicians will be scrutinised for over-simplification of reality
>
> adults exhibit a concomitant awareness of the complexity of the real world of political disputes, policy decisions and the interplay of ideology and circumstance
>
> adults realise the importance of context to political actions and decisions. This awareness of context causes them to question the correctness of ultimate, universal or final solutions predented to them
>
> adults are aware of contrasting political ideologies, irrespective of their personal reactions to these. They realise that ideologies of capitalism, socialism, liberalism, fascism, nationalism and democracy have characterized the actions of different societies and different leaders at different times
>
> adults are alive to the potential for the manipulation of political images in the mass media. They possess an awareness of the ploys and devices by which media consultants and politicans can portray attractive images of leadership and personal charisma, with no substantive policy content

adults possess a global perspective on inter-country disputes and consider the implications of their own country's actions on the international scene. They realise that in terms of economic action, strategic conditions, and acts of aggression or assistance towards other countries, that the world is an holistic, global village

adults engage in free public discourse on these events. They possess the inclination, the capacity and the opportunity to exchange, consider and explore the alternative interpretations they offer of events, policies, and ideologies

It can be argued that this view of political literacy is too cognitive, elitist and neglectful of the literacy gained by working as community activists, animateurs and organizers - more appropriate to a liberal arts discussion group than to the real world of politics. To presume, however, that the desire to exercise political rights, to engage in community action, or to make the political system work to the advantage of a certain group, are somehow independent of changes in political consciousness or awareness, is misconceived. Adults engaged in such activities generally have their political actions guided by a philosophical rationale. Or, concurrent with an engagement in political action on one specific issue is a politicising process by which an opposition to one policy becomes the catalyst for the development of a questioning political consciousness. It is revealing how those engaged in single issue politics (for example, working in a nuclear freeze campaign, opposing speculator developments in a particular neighborhood, or campaigning on the abortion issue) become active in a whole range of concerns.

Critics of the foregoing conditions of political literacy may also argue that the only really 'useful' education is that which focuses on the development of learners' practical instrumental skills. But this is a delimiting and constraining view of education. As argued earlier, much personally significant learning involves changing one's self-image, developing new estimations of self-worth, realising the malleability of personal and social worlds, and becoming aware of the culturally constructed nature of previously unchallenged values, beliefs and behaviors. Following on from this realisation of contextuality comes a readiness to act upon the world to change personal and social lives Such action may well be manifest in engagement in local political activities, as well as in re-negotiating personal relationships. The point is, though, that the action is consequent upon, or concurrent with, the alteration of personal meaning systems and with speculation on alternative ways of thinking and living.

There is also the danger that the development of practical, instrumental skills will be uncritically felt to be most helpful and most appropriate for groups of working class or 'disadvantaged' adults. It has been argued by many that disadvantaged adults will be sceptical of the development of critical awareness as outlined above, and will be much better served by skill development courses on committee management, local government and advocacy tactics. The problem with this view is that it is fundamentally insulting to working class adults. It comes close to assuming that an instrumental learning style is the characteristic learning style of such adults. This is a limiting and constraining theory of learning for a great many adults. The capacity to engage in imaginative speculation on alternatives, or to reflect on one's uncritical acceptance of beliefs, values and ideologies, is not class-specific. Adults generally learn best when involved in praxis; that is, in action combined with reflection on action through an exploration of other's experiences. To suggest that working class learners should be limited to participating in the action part of praxis is to create a dangerous self-fulfilling prophecy by which educators avoid encouraging critical awareness among working class learners because this is seen as inappropriate to their learning style and beyond their capacities.

Media Literacy

Our images of the world, from which we draw inferences about correct behavior and acceptable values, come from a number of sources. We construct personal meaning systems comprising behavioral rules and moral codes based upon the messages we receive from a number of sources. Among these are the school, parents, the extended family, formalized religion, work colleagues and our peer group. In the political sphere, all these socialization agencies operate to inculcate adults into a predefined set of values, attitudes and ideologies concerning political allegiances. Such allegiances are frequently lifelong and attain the status of unquestioned givens in adulthood.

The mass media occupy an important status in the process of political socialization in adulthood. Their socialization is, however, quite different in nature from that exercised by the family, school, workplace and peer group. These are all concerned to initiate individuals into correct political views, acceptable values and party philosophies which are seen as directly serving their interests. The mass media tend not to be so explicit in their transmission of specific values and attitudes, or to make any commitment to any specific policy issue. Their socialization occurs in a more subtle and insidious manner. Primarily, the mass media socialize adults into viewing political issues, disputes and events in a highly simplistic, unidimensional manner. Issues rooted in ideological conflicts are presented as personality differences. Policy decisions are reduced to simplistic analyses of complex questions. Most insidiously (and perhaps most significantly) the mass media present their analyses of political affairs in such a way as to encourage the view that the framing of public policy is on the same level of non-interference to citizens as is the weather. Hence, viewing a series of reified God-like political leaders on a TV screen obscures the connection between the individual's personal circumstances and biographical troubles, and the actions perpetrated by political leaders.

A primary function of adult education, therefore, must be the encouragement of a new form of literacy. Such literacy would not be in the form of a command of reading and writing skills, or in the form of a traditional political literacy whereby adults are educated to a sophisticated degree on specific political issues of the day; rather, this new form of literacy might be called media literacy or tele-literacy. Those adults who are media-literate are aware of the potential for political manipulation inherent in the mass media. Such adults have developed filtering devices through which the content of media images can be sifted, decoded and demythologized. Such adults are not definitively knowledgeable concerning every public issue of the day. They are, however, possessed of a sophistication in terms of their capacity to be aware when issues are being trivialized, when images are taking precedent over substantive discussion, and when the pursuit of apparent objectivity is masking the presentation of a monolithic, consensus viewpoint from which deviant or unpopular interpretations are excluded.

The political and ethical correctness of any of the policies and ideologies informing the actions of the politicians just outlined are not at issue in this discussion. On every political matter a range of interpretations, ideologies and viewpoints will come into play, and adherents of different allegiances will castigate each other's positions. Adult educators need subscribe to no party line (though all should acknowledge their own biases), nor argue for one ideological interest over another. The perpetration of political images is the business of political interests of every ideological hue. We need not fear accusations of being overly rightist or leftist if we seek to educate adults regarding the potential for the manipulation of emotions which exists in TV, and the ease with which the affirmation of evocative themes and images can replace considered debate.

A Populist Example of Media and Political Literacy

The Phil Donahue show airs every morning and is presented as a popular 'chat' show. It includes features on show business personalities, different styles of cuisine, diets, and the lives of television actors. Viewers switch on the show in the expectation of seeing Joan Collins discuss her personal life. Mixed in with these populist programs, however, are some quietly effective exercises in promoting media literacy. The show features regular debates on foreign and domestic policy issues, a readiness to critique differing interpretations of policy, and a constant attention to the trivialising aspects of TV coverage. Donahue challenges his audience without making them feel personally threatened, he encourages an examination of differing perspectives on issues, and he engages his audience in an active exploration and exchange of experience.

An excellent example of this was a show broadcast in the summer of 1984. The film Seeing Red, a series of interviews with members and ex-members of the Communist Party of America, had just been released. Guests on the show were two ex and one current CP member, and the film's producer. On introducing the guests and explaining their present or past political allegiances the studio audience were restless and hostile, telling the guests to "Go back to Russia". By asking his guests to explain their vision of what America might be, by letting them talk about the humanist and Christian altruism which had motivated them to join the party in the 1930's, and by their speaking of their disillusionment with the current state of the party, Donahue quietened the audience. In under one hour of studio discussion the audience had come to view the guests not as treasonable devils, but as Americans who had been distressed in the 1930's at what they saw as the hollowness of the American dream for a great many ethnic groups, and for working class adults. This program was aired to many millions of American homes and prompted a flood of angry letters. However, Donahue was careful to express no overt political allegiance and did not seek to convert or proselytise either his audience or his guests. He functioned as an educator, assisting his audience to explore and consider critically interpretations of the world different to those they normally held.

The Donahue show can be viewed as a metaphor for many adult education programs. Many programmatic offerings are deliberately populist since the continuation of continuing education programs frequently depend on healthy enrolments. In the real world of cost-recovery adult education, we cannot abandon entirely the felt needs rationale, and nor should we. What is both possible and imperative, however, is that adult education programs have a portion of their activities devoted to political detoxification. In an age when the mass media confirm our political allegiances and shape our political sensibilities, it is irresponsible for adult educators to ignore the need for promoting some form of media literacy. Fostering in adults a critical rationality where the media's versions of political reality are concerned, is an exemplification of all that is best in the tradition of adult education.

ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER A FRESH LOOK AT ADULT DEVELOPMENT: ALTERNATIVE PARADIGMS FOR RESEARCH

AUTHOR Chairperson: Dr. Rosemary Caffarella, Virginia Commonwealth University
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During the last several years adult educators have shown a growing interest in research on adult development. This type of research provides a foundation upon which to build theories of learning and teaching for adults. The primary paradigm for adult development research has been a linear pattern of development, framed in the context of developmental stages or phases tied to chronological age. This paradigm has been rebutted by recent systematic studies and is being augmented by other adult development paradigms.

The major purpose of this symposium is to explore alternative models or paradigms for research in adult development. Three different frameworks for structuring this research will be reviewed: 1) life domains involving specific developmental tasks; 2) life events model; and 3) appropriate paradigms for describing adult development of women.

The symposium will open with a presentation of the life domains approach to the study of adult development. This will include a systematic review of the current work using the stages/phases model. The life domains paradigm is viewed as a better way, than the stages/phases model, to accommodate the diversity of adulthood experiences while retaining the possibility of systematic description.

The presentation on the life events model will include an exploration of the types of life events and the structural charactersics of these events. This will be followed by suggestion for research questions that arise from focusing upon the impact that life events have upon individuals or cohort groups and the ways in which people adapt to life events.

Based on a review of the literature on adult development in women, three issues critical to the study of adult development will be reviewed: 1) women's development may proceed on a different basis than men's development; 2) the stage/phase model of development may not be adequate to describe women's adult development; and 3) there may be different critical elements that influence women's development (e.g., attachment and affiliation) than those that influence men's development (e.g., autonomy and achievement).

A FRESH LOOK AT ADULT DEVELOPMENT: ALTERNATIVE PARADIGMS FOR RESEARCH

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Introduction

During the last several years adult educators have shown a growing interest in research on adult development. This type of research provides a foundation upon which to build theories of learning and teaching for adults. The literature in the area of adult development has been heavily oriented toward models of "the" process of lifespan development. Almost all of them assume a unidimensional, single-pass sort of life with development more-or-less tightly tied to age (Erikson, 1982; Gould, 1978; Havighurst, 1952; Kohlberg, 1969; and Levinson, 1978). The tendency to do so is understandable. If the purpose of research is to describe and explain how the world works, then certainly the building of models serves that purpose. Simple models are preferable to complex ones, if they explain or describe with fidelity.

The problem is that current models are not very good at either explaining or describing. All one has to do is to review his or her own development and that of a range of acquaintances to note that the lives of real people can be crammed into the current developmental models only by ignoring whole important aspects of development. Even accepting the radical simplification of life inherent in the current models, one finds that the sequences proposed fit only a very slim segment of the population, and that only loosely.

The major purpose of this symposium is to explore alternative models or paradigms for research in adult development. Three different frameworks for structuring this research will be reviewed: 1) life domains involving specific developmental tasks; 2) life events model; and 3) appropriate paradigms for describing adult development of women.

Life Domains Model

The lives of people -- and hence their development -- comprise domains which are independent of each other and in which development occurs in parallel. These domains include such areas as Reproductive/Bonding/Family; Personal Development; Work and Career; Socio-Civic Involvement; Achievement of Autonomy; and Lifestyle. The exact boundaries and composition of these domains is not essential to the concept. The essential element is their separateness.

For one person, for example, entry into a career and marriage occur simultaneously at age 18. For another, the chronological age may be 23 or 28. For still another, entry into work may happen at twenty, marriage at 30, and a change of career (with a repeat of most of the tasks in that domain) at 45, and another marriage at 50.

Within domains, development involves tasks. The order in which these tasks occur is somewhat sequential but all tasks in a sequence are not necessarily performed and the sequence may vary in minor detail. Whole sequences or parts of sequences may be skipped, compressed or recycled.

Marriages and careers, in our society today, are commonly recycled. Several generations of men, for example, experienced rapid induction, and (sometimes) progress in a job while serving in the armed forces, to begin again on discharge. Similarly, many women have experienced at least two employment careers separated by marriage and/or child rearing.

This paradigm decouples developmental tasks from chronological age as well as from each other. The relationship of tasks to age is determined by several factors and the relationships themselves may vary and be complex. For example, parenthood is determined in the broadest way by physiological age. Within that, the laws of society or the customs of culture may establish a "social age" and set limits in terms of that. Within (or in defiance of) those limits, a "personal age" or personal preferences may be finally determining.

Preliminary work has resulted in a tentative delineation of domains and tasks, which has been incorporated into an instrument used with opportunity samples. In general, the separation of domains and the provision for recycling has worked well. The boundaries of domains and specificatiion of tasks, however, is clearly in need of further analysis and specification.

Life Events Model as a Framework for Research

The more that can be learned about the process of growth and change in adulthood, the more effective educators and others can be in designing interventions to facilitate this process. One framework for investigating adult developments is through the concept of life events. Broadly defined, a life event is a noteworthy occurrence that involves change in an individual's usual activities (Hutsch and Plemons, 1979). Also called marker events, milestones, change events, transitions, or developmental tasks, life events can be individual or cultural. Individual life events such as marriage, graduation, illness, job loss or promotion, are the "punctuation marks" that give shape and direction to a person's life cycle (Neugarten, 1976).

Life events are often age-related and usually require new behaviors and personal growth. Individual life events can be distinguished from cultural events which are "societal and historical happenings" such as war, natural disasters, social movements, economic shifts "that shape the biocultural context in which individuals develop." Cultural events create "new roles, priorities, expectations and options for growth and development" (Danish, et al., 1980, p. 348). Cultural events directly affect individual life events, however. For example, times of economic depression have been shown to have an impact upon family stability, fertility rates, and employment patterns.

To date, most research on life events has explored the impact in terms of stress that life events have upon individuals or cohort groups. The well-known Holmes and Rahe (1967) inventory of events, each of which has an assigned numerical equivalent of stress, is an example of this line of inquiry. A second research emphasis has been on the ways in which people adapt to or accommodate life events. Knox (1977) has delineated five typical reactions to an event; frantic activity, action, educative activity, desire for assistance, contemplation, and withdrawal. That educative activity is one way adults adapt to life events has been solidly supported by a recent study of participation in adult education (Aslanian and Brickell, 1980). The authors found that 83% of the learners surveyed said they were learning in order to cope with some past, present, or future change in their lives. Looking at adaptation to life events from a counseling perspective, Schlossberg (1984) presents a framework for friends, coworkers, and professionals to help adults through transitions. She defines transition as "any event or nonevent that results in change in relationships, routines, assumptions, and/or roles within the setting of self, work, family, health, and/or economics" (p. 43).

The impact an event has upon a person and the way in which a person accommodates the event is dependent upon how the event is interpreted by the individual. Events alone, whether they be individual or cultural, are essentially neutral phenomena. Depending upon numerous variables to be discussed shortly, the same event can be interpreted as negative or positive, as a gain or a loss, or as one that requires little or substantial behavior change. As yet little work has been done to investigate how individuals interpret the meaning of life events. A research agenda for linking event interpretation and adult learning might center on any one of the following variables:

1. timing - In all societies there are normative expectations of when it is appropriate for events to occur. A person experiencing an event that is "on time" (Neugarten, 1976) and in sequence has a social support system to help handle the experience. Friends are likely to be going through the same things, media reinforces the timing, and groups of similar-aged adults are available for support. If events occur at times much different than expected - that is, if they are "off-timed," such as a late-life pregnancy, being widowed at 30, and so on, there is little support and greater potential for crisis. Related to the timing of an event is the absence of an event - that is, not having an anticipated event occur. George and Siegler (1981, p. 34) speculate that "the nonoccurrence of an anticipated or desired event may be more stressful - or at least perceived as more stressful - than its occurrence."

2. cohort specificity - This "refers to the fact that a given event may have different meaning and effects for different cohorts or generations" (Danish, et al., 1980, p. 344). The Kennedy assassination, for example, was a cultural event that greatly affected young adult cohorts of the 1960s. The interpretation of even individual life events such as pregnancy is also a function of the normative expectations of particular cohorts.

3. contextual purity - How an adult reacts to a life event may be related to the extent to which the "event occurs at a relatively stable, otherwise uneventful time in a person's life" (Danish, et al., 1980, p. 344). Other events occurring simultaneously may interfere with the resolution of any specific event. Furthermore, a life event in one of life's domains, such as career, may well affect other domains such aas family and community participation. Examining a life even out of context provides a myopic view of the impact of various life experiences" (Danish, et al., 1980, p. 344).

4. duration - A person's experience with a life event may have to do with the duration of the event. A long illness of a loved one, or the birth of a child, for example, allows time for one to adapt to new life patterns. This period of "anticipatory socialization" can be "educative, in that the role, rights, expectations, and responsibilities of the impending event can be explored and learned ahead of time. Second, it can provide rehearsal time to try on various adaptive styles and extablish alternatives in case expected coping strategies fail" (Danish, et al., 1980, p. 343).

5. mediating variables - Hutsch and Plemons (1979) discuss three types of mediating variables that may explain why different individuals react in vastly different ways to the same life event. Contextual variables have to do with the individual's supportive framework and interpersonal relationships, socioeconomic status and income level" (p. 24). Biological variables such as sex, age, physical characteristics create what the authors call a "floor effect." That is, biological defects can predict maladaptation but adequate resources do not necessarily predict successful coping. Finally, psychological variables such as cognitive ability, accummulated knowledge, anticipatory socialization, time perspective, individual values and goals, and one's range of coping strategies affect, in varying degrees, a person's reaction to an ability to accommodate a life event.

Life events, which are integral to each person's life cycle, present a rich arena for better understanding adult developmental processes and the relationship of such processes to participation in educative activities. It is already known that life events "trigger" the need to learn in most adults. Research has shown that there is enormous variance in how people react to and eventually accommodate a life event. Part of this variance might be explained by the variables of timing, cohort specificity, contextual purity, duration, and mediating variables.

Theory Building Related to Adult Development of Women

Consensus has not been reached concerning appropriate theories to use when investigating the psychosocial development of women. In particular, there is disagreement about whether it is appropriate to adapt theories used to study male psychosocial development when investigating the psychosocial development of women. This assertion is based on a critical review of the literature on adult development in women. Three criteria were used in determining the thirty-five studies that were included in the review: 1) be framed in a psychosocial context; 2) be serious conceptual, analytical, or data-based studies; and 3) be focused only on women's development or use only women subjects.

Approximately one-third of the scholars suggest theories proposed with reference to male samples are appropriate when investigating the lives of women. For example, Levinson's (1980) theory has been cross-validated for women by six researchers (Alexander, 1980; Kahnweiler, 1980; Murrell & Donahue, 1982; Stewart, 1977; Goodman, 1980; Zubrod, 1980). The premise of age related stable and transitional period in women's lives was accepted, with some variability in how they handled the various developmental tasks and choices. This variability was most noted in the area of relationships and more specifically to marriage and family issues.

A few of the authors suggest existing theories are incomplete, i.e., that other sets of variables need to be considered when investigating female development. Targ (1979), for example, suggests that the unanticipated events of women's lives, especially those of divorce and widowhood, be given particular attention when building theories concerning female psychosocial development.

The remaining scholars, content that different models must be built to identify the unique patterns of psychosocial development for women. Chodorow (1974) observes that because of early socialization "feminine personality comes to define itself in relations and connections to others more than masculine personality does." (p. 44). This perspective, that women's development is grounded to a greater extent in attachment and affiliation, rather than being formed solely by separateness and autonomy, is echoed by others (Bardwick, 1971; Gilligan, 1980; Hancock, 1981; Rubin, 1979). Thus, there appears to be a description of development missing from the current literature, "a failure to describe the progression of relationships toward a maturity of interdependence. Though the truth of separation is recognized in most developmental texts, the reality of continuing connection is lost..." (Gilligan, 1982, p. 155).

In summary, what the review revealed was a questioning by the majority of scholars of the basic assumptions and theories, in relationship to the development of adult women, on which most adult development research is grounded. The next critical step is to construct alternative paradigms for research in adulthood which can address in a more adequate way the lives of women. This paradigm must include the elements of attachment and affiliation as both integral and cental to women throughout their adult years. This is not to say theories that promote autonomy and achievement as the pinnacle of adult development should be discarded in the study of women. Rather what is needed is an integration of this sense of separateness and attachment as critical to the self-definition of both women and men in today's society.

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER WOMEN IN THEIR THIRTIES: THE IN-BETWEEN GENERATION

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The purpose of this study was to investigate how women, ages 30 to 39 years of age, are presently living their lives. This cohort group of women was chosen as it is a unique group in a socio-cultural sense. The majority were raised with basic values of home and family and now are thrust into a world of multiple roles. Also little research has been conducted with this age group of women as the primary subjects. Thus, the findings from the study add to our basic knowledge base about adult development and more specifically about adult development in women.

The naturalistic approach to research was used to generate the data for this study. The subjects included twenty-three women, chosen through a nomination process using the purposeful sampling method. Specific demographic characteristics such as age, marital status, being a parent, present employment, income and education were used to ensure that the sample included a cross-section of the population. The data were collected primarily by in-depth three to four hour interviews with each subject. Based on listening to all of the taped interviews, coding categories were agreed upon. The data, in the form of mostly verbatim transcripts and formal case studies, were then analyzed to determine the patterns and themes relating to the major research questions.

Among the major findings are the following: 1) These women most often described themselves in affective terms. 2) Most of these women revealed a primary orientation in their lives in terms of being other and not self-oriented. Their relationship networks, which included both family and friends, continued to surface as the predominate focus of their lives, even for those who worked for pay. 3) The various relationship networks provided for these women primarily support, care and love. In addition, spouses and children gave these women a sense of security and acceptance, while their friends provided them an outlet for sharing and talking. 4) For those women who worked for pay, their work for the most part was enjoyable and important to them. From their paid work they received a sense of accomplishment and self-esteem, self-confidence, contact with people, and money. 5) Most of these women showed a lack of consistent goal setting in their lives. Many of them did mention a beginning shift in their 30s toward a greater awareness of self and a questioning as to what they wanted to do with their lives. 6) All of the women stated they liked or felt good about being a woman today. About half of them felt the pull of the shift in women's roles, in terms of feeling out of step or an "in-between" generation.

The primary implications from this study related to theory building in adult development, especially adult development in women. Three major questions that emerge are: 1) Is this age 30 cohort of women a product of a unique period in history or will the sentiment of these women appear in younger generations? 2) If women are predominately relationship and other oriented, what is the pinnacle of human development - autonomy and independence; interdependence and cooperation; or some yet to emerge combination of these two polarities? 3) How does relationship orientation of women relate to being individually goal directed in life, especially in terms of job or career? Does the idea of being goal directed need to be reconcep-

WOMEN IN THEIR THIRTIES: THE IN-BETWEEN GENERATION

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The purpose of this study was to investigate how women, ages 30 to 39 years, perceive their lives. This cohort of women is unique in a socio-cultural sense. Born in families with traditional basic values and attitudes toward gender roles, they came of age in the transformational years of Vietnam and militant feminism. Thrust as young adults into a world of seemingly infinite variability in roles and life styles for women, the traditional role models still remain powerful for them. Bardwick (1980) believes that this generation will have a more profound and prolonged transition period than cohorts either younger or older than they.

In studying adult development in women, two approaches have been used. The first is to base that study in accepted developmental theory (Alexander, 1980; Stewart, 1977; and Zubrod, 1980), primarily that of age/phase theory. The alternative view questions the appropriateness of this theory for women's experience and proposes to begin with descriptive or ethnographic accounts of women's experiences to expand our understanding of what constitutes adulthood. Fewer studies have been conducted within this latter framework (Estes, 1977; Gilligan, 1982; and Rubin, 1979).

Regardless of which assumption underlies the study, the subjects have been for the most part women 40 to 55. Only four studies have included women in their thirties as the primary subjects. Three studies (Alexander, 1980; Stewart, 1977; and Zubrod, 1980) were grounded in the work of Levinson, and focused on his period of Early Adulthood. All three confirmed Levinson's construct of life structure and stable and transitional periods at this stage of life, although emphasis was given to different aspects of that life structure. The fourth study (Estes, 1977), phenomenological in nature, focused on three categories of women in their 30s: "traditionalists," "career committed," and "recast." One significant theme emerged from her data for all subjects: an expanding awareness of life possibilities with movement toward more of what "I want to do."

FOCUS AND METHODOLOGY

The study was grounded in the naturalistic paradigm of research. The intent was to capture in her language what each subject perceived as central in her life and the effect this might have on her perception of the future. Questions for the study focused on three primary themes: 1) orientation towards life in terms of self, relationships and occupations; 2) conflict arenas; and 3) perception of near and far future. The interrelationships among these basic themes changed through the process of data collection and analysis. The result was enriched presentation of two of the themes

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(orientation towards life and perception of the future), a submersion of the conflict theme into other parts of the data, and the emergence of three additional themes: 1) goals setting; 2) feelings about being a woman; and 3) self perception.

The subjects included twenty-three women born between 1943 and 1952 and living in one northeastern state in 1982. They were chosen through a process using the purposive role sampling and snowballing technique. A cross-section of the population was sought in terms of age, marital status, being a parent, present employment, income and education. The latter two variables in the sample were not congruent with the general population. Half the sample was college educated and about two thirds were of the middle income range.

The data were collected by tape-recorded in-depth three hour interviews with each subject. The interview team members designed and utilized an interview guide consisting of a genogram and open-ended questions. Case records, organized in a topical fashion, were developed for each subject from notes of impressions during the interviews, transcriptions of audio-tapes, and demographic material. Based on reviewing the case records and listening to all of the taped interviews, coding categories were derived. The data, in the form of mostly verbatim transcripts and case records, were then divided into the agreed upon categories and analyzed to determine the patterns and themes related to the major issues of the study.

THEMES THAT EMERGED FROM DATA

Self Perception

These women most often described themselves in affective terms. They used words such as sensitive, caring, happy and loving. For example, Theresa, a 37 year old mother of three, who works full-time as a proofreader and binder, saw herself as "compassionate, extremely so. Too much I think. I get hurt easily. So sensitive, too, and moody." Many also conveyed a more instrumental side using descriptions like energetic, intelligent, achiever and independent, used in concert with the more affective terms. For some, describing themselves came easily, for others it was more difficult, and for a few it was a task they definitely did not like doing.

Orientation to Others

Most of these women revealed a primary orientation in their lives of being other rather than self-oriented. Some spoke in general terms about this life orientation. "I have always been extremely invested of myself in other people and very concerned with the really significant things in life like caring for other people and sharing." (Marjorie, a 36 year old mother and full-time job holder). Others related this life orientation toward others to their present role in life.

> Only because of the ages of my children. I think right now I am still very much geared to them. Only because I want to be. I know I don't need to be. I know I could make circumstances different but both my husband and I don't/we just don't feel that way now. And I think some time soon I'll have my chance again. (Elvira, a 35 year old homemaker with four children)

Relationships

The various relationship networks, including family and friends, provided primarily support, care and love for the subjects. In addition, spouses and children gave these women a sense of security and acceptance, while their friends provided them an outlet for sharing and talking. Their most important relationships tended to be with their husbands or significant others, with a few of the married women citing both husband and children. The single women with children usually identified their children as the primary relationship while childless single women reported connections with friends.

Mary Ann, a 32 year old woman with no children, describes what she receives from her husband this way:

> Lots of pats, my husband will tell you. Love, material and emotional support. Maybe a lot of ego building.... He tells me I'm very special.... and that's a nice thing to have someone tell you that. Companionship.... most of the things that you need out of a relationship and he's pretty good.

Though friends, except for the single women without children, were not cited as their most important relationships, having friends for most of these women was extremely important. For the most part, friendships were with other women, with only a few noting other couples and males as friends. As Janice, a 34 year old woman responded when asked "How important is it for you to have friends?"

> Really important. It's hard to admit that sometimes because I'm afraid I won't have any, and I want to be able to say it doesn't really matter, but that's not true. I think friends are very important. I think it's important to have women to talk to. Women are much more supportive of women than men.

Working for Pay

For those women who worked for pay, their work for the most part was enjoyable and important to them. From their paid work they received a sense of accomplishment, self-esteem, self-confidence, contact with people and money. Except for the money, these same themes emerged for those engaged in volunteer work. Penny, a full-time waitress, put it in these terms.

> I'm working. I'm lucky. If I wasn't working I wouldn't be where I am today... I get satisfaction that I'm doing this on my own with no help from anybody. That I have proved to people.... that I can do things on my own without asking for any help.

For those with families, work tended to be secondary.

> I chose to get married, to have children. I chose to have a career but to make it of lesser importance than my family and I'm happy about these choices. Five years ago I didn't feel that way. I questioned whether or not the choices that I made were the right ones. I think the 30s are a time of reappraisal and still the potential for growth. (A 36 year old mother of three, and full-time job holder).

Goal Setting

Most of these women lacked consistent goal setting in their lives. As teenagers, many of these women saw themselves becoming wives and mothers. While some had very specific educational goals, and a few spoke in terms of having both a career and a family, the career was usually thought of as secondary. Only two as teenagers, both college educated, spoke primarily in terms of a career/job orientation. There were a few who had vague or no specific life goals as a teenager. A sampling of how these women reflected back on their life goals as teenagers follows:

> Getting married... can't imagine doing anything else. (Kristen, a 37 year old full-time social service worker and mother of one)
> I figured that I would go to college, maybe work, hopefully fall in love and get married and have a family, and/but have some kind of career training, so if my husband died... (Rosemary, a 35 year old divorced woman with no children)
> An idealized fairy tale, that I would happily ever after. But I didn't have any idea of what that meant. (Mimi, a 39 year old divorcee, with one child)

In their twenties, the goals of some of these women shifted. Some thought more in terms of their work life, though not in a sense of life-long career buidling. "I think at the age of 25 I sort of thought to be married isn't that important. I kind of got into working and enjoyed that. I knew I wanted a primary relationship, but marriage didn't necessarily have to be it." (Candace, a 39 year old nursing administrator). Others shifted their emphasis toward husband and children. "I married, still worked for three years, but then we started having children when I was 25... Then my later twenties, I was entirely wrapped up with children and babies."

Many reported a shift beginning in their thirties toward a greater awareness of self and their own needs and a questioning as to what they wanted to do with their lives. There appeared for some also a better sense of who they are.

> I think by the time you reach your mid-thirties your children are growing and you have more time to think about yourself. That's what I did. I kinda forgot about myself with everybody else's problems and I've just started. I say, why, I'm thirty-five, there's still a little time to think about yourself. (Tosca, a 38 year old, married with one child, part-time worker and homemaker)

But for a few, there was still that feeling of aimlessness and feeling unsure. "I really don't know where I'm going. I need to make myself sit down and think about it. (Aida, a 31 year old divorced woman, with no children).

Future Directions

About two thirds of the respondents were fairly optimistic about their personal futures. The other third were vague and confused or uncertain about what the future would hold. Those women who felt good about their personal futures were able to outline specific goals or directions for their lives; those who did not had at best only vague ideas of where they wanted to go.

Sally, a 32 year old teacher's aide, described it as follows: "I feel good that I finally know what I'm going to do; what would be good for me and just knowing feels like I jumped over the biggest hurdle of all."

Being a Woman Today

Each of the women stated she felt good about being a woman today. Reasons given ranged from feeling grateful for being able to give birth to children to believing women can now do more things than men can do. As Janice, a 34 year old wife, mother and part-time worker put it:

> I'm glad I'm a woman. I think women are amazing - more flexible - basically more intelligent. They seem to handle a lot more stress than the average man, responsibility - different types of stress at one time.

Elvira, a 35 year old wife, mother, and homemaker, sees advantages for her four daughters. "I'm so thankful that times are as they are and that they/they are going to have so many more freedoms and so many more things available to them."

The sense that life choices are very different for women today was felt by many of these women. About half of them noted conflict from the shift in women's roles, feeling out of step or an "in-between" generation. A 37 year old woman said:

> If I were born two years either way, my life would have been much different than it was. I was on the dividing line between, well, I was probably the last class of women at my particular college that assumed that they would not have to work. If I were two years younger - I think I would have assumed I had to work. My grades would have been a whole different thing and I probably would have followed a different course.... If I were two or three years older, I probably would not have gotten a divorce and I would probably not be working.

Yet the homemaker role identity remains.

> When women's lib came out of and I think homemakers were made to feel like what I'm doing isn't important and I felt that way for a while but I finally said to someone once. I like what I am doing and that's the most important thing. Since I said that, when someone says to me you'll have to find yourself - I say I'm not lost. I think it's interesting the evolution of women in their 30s - through women's lib in the 1960s and what they are coming back to. The home is sort of resurfacing as an OK place to be and it's alright. (Gloria, a 37 year old wife and homemaker with two children)

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The majority of women in this study clearly reported the importance of relationship and caring for others in their lives. This sentiment was echoed in earlier studies of women in their thirties (Alexander, 1980; Stewart, 1977; and Zubrod, 1980). This orientation towards others has been confirmed in other studies on adult development in women at various life stages (Gilligan, 1982; and Rubin, 1979).

Women in the present study did not set consistent life goals for themselves. The majority had shifted and changed their goals a number of times depending upon the life circumstances in which they found themselves and their primary life focus on others. It did appear that many of these women during their 30s were becoming more self-oriented and questioning what they wanted to do with their lives. This agrees with findings of Estes (1977) and Zubrod (1980) that this age group appears to have expanding awareness of life possibilities and a developing sense of what "I want to do."

These women for the most part liked themselves and felt good, even proud, about being a woman in today's society. Those in their later 20s felt more conflict between traditional and new values and roles. It will be interesting to study the next younger cohort to learn whether these conflicts and pressures disappear with socialization into the new women's roles.

The primary implications from this study relate to theory building in adult development, especially adult development in women. Three major questions that emerge are: 1) Is this age 30 cohort of women a product of a unique period in history or will the sentiment of these women appear in younger generations? 2) If women are predominately relationship and other-oriented, what is the pinnacle of human development - autonomy and independence; interdependence and cooperation; or some yet to emerge combination of these two polarities? 3) How does relationahip orientation of women relate to being individually goal directed in life, especially in terms of job or career? Does the idea of being goal directed need to be reconceptualized for women, both in terms of basic process and strategies?

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ABSTRACT

Microscope or telescope: The place of metaphor in adult education research

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It is the purpose of all research to make sense of reality, or some aspect thereof, but by its nature, reality is complex, chaotic and deeply interconnected. For this reason, it is customary to focus on some subsection of the phenomenal universe, and to ask (and hopefully to answer) specific questions about that. But where do such research questions come from? Just as there is no revealed truth about the nature of the universe, so there are no revealed truths about which questions to investigate. Thus, even the framing of research questions is speculative, based on some fundamental, and often primitive understandings, values, insights or intuitions. The nature and source of these primordial formulations lies in metaphor.

In recent years, scholars have turned their attention to explicating the metaphors which underlie their field of study. For some, this has served primarily as a stimulating mental exercise, for others as a way of viewing teaching and learning or evaluation, and for yet others metaphors are viewed as guides to action. It is argued in this paper that all research questions can be traced to a metaphor held by the researcher, and that all social science research is carried out through the *perspectacles* of a pre-existing, often tacit and unarticulated, analog of the real situation. The proposition advanced here is that metaphors are neither simply an interesting diversion, nor an intriguing way of looking at the already known (although they are both of these), but are a powerful way of conceptualising the unknown, and thereby of formulating testable research questions. In fact, it is argued that there are four areas where metaphors may potentially be of use in educational research: (i) Identifying research problems; (ii) Suggesting possible research strategies; (iii) Representing potential solutions and insights; and (iv) Explaining results.

In particular, the paper dwells on the process of **retroduction** or **abduction**, whereby models, theories or characterisations from one field are applied to another, as metaphors for the latter. In view of the traditional proclivity of adult education to 'borrow' from other fields and disciplines, this is viewed as a legitimate mode of enquiry, so long as the salient differences between the two areas are emphasised.

It is also contended that the whole research process can be conceived of in metaphorical terms, and that research activity can be viewed as, for instance: exploratory surgery; mining; surveying; investigative journalism, and so on. Clearly, each such metaphor carries with it quite profound implications for the 'tools' to be used and processes to be followed, as well as for the view of 'truth' which is assumed.

It is concluded that metaphors have a distinctive contribution to make to the study of adult education, and that their literary and linguistic use is, metaphorically speaking, just the tip of the iceberg.

Microscope or telescope: The place of metaphor in adult education research

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Introduction

It is the purpose of research to make sense of reality, or some part thereof, and because of the complex, chaotic, and deeply interconnected nature of the phenomenal universe, it is customary to ask (and hopefully to answer) specific questions. But where do such research questions come from? Just as there is no revealed truth about the nature of the world, so there are no revealed truths about which questions to investigate. Thus, even the framing of research questions is speculative, based on some fundamental understandings, values, insights and intuitions. The nature and source of these primordial formulations lies in metaphor.

My interest in metaphors as more than mere figures of speech was sparked when I read Lakoff and Johnson's book Metaphors we live by (1980). The thesis of this book is that metaphors are symbols, profoundly rooted in our culture, which influence how we think, act and speak. This intriguing notion, coupled with Lakoff and Johnson's contention that it is possible to change our metaphors and, thereby, to alter the way we think, feel, act and speak about aspects of our lives, led me into both wider and deeper reading about metaphors in general, and metaphors in education in particular. There is a growing realisation that the linguistic and literary use of metaphors is (metaphorically speaking) just the tip of the iceberg. In fact, the way we actually make sense of reality, by scanning for similarities, and comparing and contrasting ideas, actions, things and people (Kelly, 1955; 1970), is the very basis of metaphor as well. So long as metaphor was regarded, as Richards says, as "a sort of happy extra trick with words, an opportunity to exploit the accidents of their versatility" (Richards, 1936, p. 90), this crucial aspect was masked from view.

Metaphor in adult education

In a tantalisingly brief article on 'The use of metaphor in adult education', Harris, Legge and Merriam (1981) draw attention to both "the widespread, largely unconscious use of metaphors in our everyday language" (p. 10), and to "metaphorical patterns [which] are especially prevalent in the literature and practice of adult education" (p. 11). They mention architecture, computer technology, banking, medicine and gardening as examples of metaphors which are commonly encountered in adult education.

For some, it may come as a shock to realise that adult education can be viewed metaphorically at all; for others, the coexistence of numbers of alternative metaphors might be taken as evidence both of the 'pre-paradigmatic' state of adult education as a field of study and of the need to diminish this diversity in favour of a single, universal metaphor for the field. To do this, however, would be to miss the point that metaphors, like beauty, are in the 'eye of the beholder', and that it is impossible (even if it were desirable) to legislate for people to view things identically.

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Furthermore, the work of anthropologists on root metaphors in various cultures demonstrates that diversity *per se* is by no means a bad thing (Beck, 1978). To the extent that it is legitimate to view adult education as a 'culture' in the anthropological sense, in fact, an examination of the dominant metaphors in use at any given time may well highlight important pre-occupations in the field. To extend this idea a little further, it might also be that adult education comprises not one, but several distinct sub-cultures, and that when people use particular metaphors in adult education, they may have quite different (and possibly even contradictory) connotations, depending on their respective cultural backgrounds. This is particularly, though not exclusively, true of people working within a British, as opposed to a North American research tradition (Brookfield & Carlson, 1982).

The idea of considering metaphors in an educational context is not new. According to Ortony (1975): "Metaphors and their closest relatives, similes and analogies, have been used as teaching devices since the earliest writings of civilized man. The dialogues of Plato are full of them..." (p. 45) This paper is less concerned with the 'pedagogical' uses of metaphor, however, than with applications in educational research.

Metaphors in Adult Education Research

In common with educational research generally (e.g. Travers, 1978; Kerlinger, 1979), adult education research is, or at least should be, a scientific process (Long & Hiemstra, 1980; Sork, 1982). Many people can accept without difficulty the claim that metaphor is a significant linguistic and conceptual construct. However, they prefer to think that science is somehow sacrosanct; that scientists deal with 'objective' reality; that effects are related to causes through some immutable system of lawful relationships; that words have fixed meanings; that people can be objective and can speak and write objectively and, above all, that; "metaphor and other kinds of poetic, fanciful, rhetorical or figurative language can always be avoided in speaking objectively, and should be avoided, since their meanings are not clear and precise and do not fit reality in any obvious way" (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, pp. 187-8).

The difficulty for people who argue this way is that scientific language is by no means free of metaphorical allusions. Consider two relatively esoteric branches of science-- astrophysics and sub-atomic physics--where scientists who are unable to see the objects of their enquiries are obliged to resort to metaphorical language to describe puzzling phenomena; as Beck (1978) observes, "black holes" in the outer universe and the "charmed" behaviour of quarks are two well known examples.

The problem here results from confusion about what constitutes 'scientific' research. For the present purpose, I will define scientific research as any process of disciplined enquiry, based on some body of implicit or explicit assumptions, values and theoretical postulates, aimed at explicating some phenomena or relationships either observed or assumed to exist in the 'real' world. I will argue that, irrespective of the paradigm which the researcher has embraced, there are four areas where metaphors may potentially be of use in educational research, viz;

i Identifying Research Problems

ii Suggesting Possible Research Strategies

iii Representing Potential Solutions and Insights

iv Explaining Results

I will also touch on how the whole research process can be viewed metaphorically, though this is seen as a separate issue, worthy of further investigation in its own right, and accordingly it is not dealt with at length.

i Identifying Research Problems One of the factors which enhances the seeming precision of the so-called 'hard' or 'natural' sciences is the apparent ease with which people are able to select a topic for research. In the social and behavioural sciences, on the other hand, research topics often seem more elusive and, when they are identified, have a tendency to be amorphous, vague, and broad. Take, for example, a situation where a would-be researcher is bereft of any ideas for a research problem. After "saturating themselves in an area of interest" (Simon, 1968, p. 184), it is conceivable that they might be assailed by "intuitive hunches, kinesthetic feeling states and even dreams or dream-like states" in which a research problem may present itself. Alternatively, the investigator might cast around for parallels in other fields, with the intention of applying a theoretical position developed elsewhere to the current area of interest.

One way of doing this is to examine the language used in describing and discussing the particular topic under study, for such linguistic clues often betray powerful, yet tacit, ways of thinking about a subject. To take a simple example, the phrase "adult education attacks inequality", is itself a metaphor, and is part of a larger metaphor which has to do with a battle between forces promoting equality and forces promoting inequality. As Lakoff and Johnson state, "it is possible to construct novel metaphorical expressions [and researchable insights] based on the unused parts [of a metaphor]" (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p. 54). Thus, by extending into the unused (or unusual) part of this particular metaphor, we can ask questions such as: what 'territory' do these two opponents already control?; who are the commanders?; what forces have been marshalled on the side of inequality?; what weapons are being used?; what sort of training do the two sides have?; for how long has the war been going on?; who are the allies of adult education in the fight against inequality?, and whose side are you on?

A second way of searching for parallels is to make use of interdisciplinary studies, whereby the researcher imports a theory or model from another area of enquiry. This phenomenon, which has been dubbed **retroduction**, is dealt with at some length by Maccia (1964) in her classic paper, 'Retroduction: A Way of Inquiring Through Models'. Essentially, the models or characterisations used as a basis for retroduction may be thought of as metaphors since, as Guba points out, "the term *metaphor* may also designate a process whereby the meanings and relationships of one theory or model may be used to suggest meanings or relationships in another arena." (Guba, 1978, p.1)

ii Suggesting Possible Research Strategies A second scenario concerns an educational researcher who has already identified an area of interest, but who is experiencing difficulty in finding a 'way in' to the problem. Here again, metaphor may provide a vital clue. Assume that you are concerned with researching "Non participation in Certain Forms of Adult Education", and that you can see an analogy between 'Non Participation in Adult Education' on the one hand, and some form of contagious disease on the other; in other words, participation is 'healthy' and non participation is 'unhealthy'. Formulating the problem this way suggests several alternative research approaches. On the one hand, you could carry out an epidemiological study to ascertain:

i whether these non participants shared any psychological or physiological characteristics which might predispose them to catching the 'non participants' disease';

ii whether there was any similarity in the pattern of their lifestyles which might make them a target for the illness;

iii whether they had, individually or in groups, been in contact with any person from whom they might have contracted the disease;

iv whether they had, in turn, contaminated any other people and passed on the sickness; and

v whether there was any evidence of spontaneous remission, whereby former sufferers had become participants in adult education activities

Alternatively, but still within the same metaphor, you might choose to adopt a more sociological approach, and to enquire into broader questions concerning the spread of the disease. The point is that viewing a situation metaphorically allows us to use research methods which have been successfully applied in the analogous situation.

Such a recommendation is, of course, anathema to some adult education researchers, who are unwilling to "borrow" from other fields, preferring instead the notion of a 'home-grown' research tradition. However, what is probably appropriate is more borrowing rather than less. Judicious use of models from medicine, engineering, feminism, architecture, journalism, conservation, law, and other fields may well cast new lights on the endeavour of adult education. Adult educators should feel free to make use of appropriate models from other areas of enquiry, but in doing so, they must emphasise the extent of overlap (or ground) between the **topic** and **vehicle**. Moreover (and perhaps even more importantly), they must be very explicit about the tensions; this is more difficult in some situations than others. It is relatively easy to point out tensions if the **topic** and **vehicle** are drawn from radically different domains; for instance, the **vehicle** is architecture, and adult education is seen as a process of *building* knowledge on solid *foundations*, using reliable *materials* to a *prepared plan*. However, it is more difficult to bear in mind the tensions when borrowing from a more closely aligned field of study: it is perfectly permissible for an adult education researcher to ground her work in a model based on the education of children, as long as she makes explicit the points where the metaphor fails - in other words where the **topic** and the **vehicle** are not isomorphic.

iii Representing Potential Solutions and Insights A further dimension where metaphors are relevant in educational research is in creative problem solving, and one of its techniques, Cognitive Guided Imagery (Roberts, 1983, p. 72). In both the arts and sciences, researchers frequently report that significant breakthroughs appear in more holistic thought forms, often as sensory images, analogies or metaphors. (Bargar & Duncan, 1982, p. 7) Thus, metaphors may have a central role to play in providing the sudden insights and gestalts which often seem to accompany, and indeed to characterise, certain stages of the research process.

iv Explaining Results Not infrequently, the educational researcher is confronted with the need to *explain* his or her research findings to others, and this is by no means a simple matter, especially if the audience is unfamiliar with the subject of the enquiry, or with the research method employed (or possibly both).

When using the metaphor for heuristic purposes, the STRANGE is in the foreground and the FAMILIAR (Gordon, 1970) is relegated to the background. But in using the metaphor for explanatory purposes, at least in establishing salient features of the metaphoric term (or vehicle), the familiar is 'brought forward' and the unfamiliar is relegated to the background. In this second case, the metaphor acts as an 'advance organiser' (Ausubel, 1968) for the material which is to follow, and as a bridge between what is already known and the new material. In this respect, it is worth considering the use of metaphor in what Petrie calls "leaping the epistemological chasm between old knowledge and radically new knowledge... [indeed], the very possibility of learning something completely new can really only be understood by presupposing the operation of something very like metaphor..." (Petrie, 1979, pp. 440-1)

Metaphors for the Research Process

Thus far, I have concentrated on how metaphors can assist at various critical points in the research process. But at another level of abstraction the entire research process itself can be conceived of in metaphorical terms. Consider, for example, the implications of thinking about research activity as: exploratory surgery; performing an autopsy; mining; anthropology; surveying; investigative journalism; literary criticism; research for legal advocacy, and so on. Clearly, as with Smith's notion of Metaphors for evaluation (1981), each metaphor carries with it quite profound implications for the tools to be used and processes to be employed, as well as for the view of 'truth' which is assumed (Guba, 1978, p. 23). Thus, as Raywid (1977) observes, the choice of metaphor is a matter of no small consequence.

Conclusion

Adult educators may disagree about many things, but on one topic they are unanimous - adult education is extremely diverse. This diversity has led to enormous variety in approaches to research and, perhaps even more crucially, to quite contradictory positions about the extent to which adult education will ever be able to break away from its reliance on knowledge, theory and research technology from other fields. In this paper, I have put forward the view that models derived from one discipline (or field of study) can act as metaphors for another, and that in this sense at least, much research activity is inherently metaphorically based. But beyond that, I have also claimed that metaphors in the more commonly accepted sense of the term can also contribute in a lively and original way to programs of research in adult education.

It is suggested in this paper that metaphors have a distinctive contribution to make to the study of adult education, and as Eisner comments;

> Each approach to the study of educational situations has its own unique perspective to provide. Each *sheds its own unique light* on the situations that humans seek to understand. The field of education in particular needs to avoid methodological monism: our problems need to be addressed in as many ways as will *bear fruit*.
>
> (Eisner, 1981, p. 9)

And, after all, surely *shedding light* and *bearing fruit* are what both research and metaphors are all about?

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER Hermeneutics and the educational narrative

AUTHOR Adèle Chené

The purpose of the paper is twofold: 1) to explore the potential of the educational narrative in expressing the main transformation one undergoes in an educational program and in understanding the meaning of one's learning experience, and 2) to explore the relevance of hermeneutics for adult educational practice and research.

The theoretical framework of the study is a synthesis of three different perspectives: 1) hermeneutics primarily as developed by Gadamer, Habermas and Ricoeur; 2) life history analysis which has made its ways into adult education (Dominicé, Pineau, Warren) and 3) linguistics (Benveniste) and semiotics, particularly structural analysis of the narrative (Greimas).

Data source and method. The narratives of learning experience were written at the end of a graduate program and during an educational activity aimed at the integration of learning. The design of the activity is described. Following the practice of analysis and interpretation of the narrative, eight narratives have been systematically analysed using Greimas' method.

Results. The analysis allows us to see the main transformation which characterized the learning subject of the text. Examples are given. In general, the course of the transformation leads the subject to a positive conclusion and, sometimes, opens up onto mythic representations of the self.

Discussion. The problem of methods in hermeneutics is raised. Since structural analysis doesn't refer to the author of a text, interpretation cannot pretend at understanding the learning experience from a narrative. A possible solution to bridge the gap between the understanding of the learning experience and the analysis of an educational narrative is found in Ricoeur's hermeneutics.

Hermeneutics and the educational narrative

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The purpose of this study is twofold: 1) to explore the relevance of hermeneutics to adult education practice and research and; 2) to explore the potential of the narrative in presenting the main transformation undergone by adults in their educational program and while giving access to meaning of their learning experience.

Theoretical Framework

If we agree that the education of adults is inseparable from their understanding of their own educational experience, we imply that the adults, as subjects, are at the center of both the process of learning and the educational relationship. It follows, then, that when trying as adult educators to understand learning or educational practice, we are inevitably engaged, as subjects, in sorting out possible meanings with other subjects. We are, therefore, engaged in hermeneutics. Heidegger (1983) himself has attempted to unfold the "hidden fullness" of learning and teaching.

Although it is of significance that hermeneutical theory aims at establishing a general theory of interpretation as a methodology for the human sciences, we shall refer nather to contemporary ontological and critical hermeneutics to establish part of the theoretical framework of this study.

On the one hand, according to Gadamer (1982), "being that can be understood is language"; moreover, language is productive of meaning. Words are not tools to express one's thoughts but in resorting to a word, "you are fixed in a direction of thought which comes from afar and stretches beyond you" (1982, p. 496). For our understanding of adult learning, given that it cannot be isolated from the understanding of the learning experience, it follows that the disclosure of meanings will be carried out in language.

On the other hand, according to Habermas (1976), language is a social phenomenon. This entails the fact that one's discourse is rooted in a language community and that meaning is disclosed at the junction of the "verticality of individuality" and the "horizontality of intersubjectivity". For our understanding of adult learning, if we are to use adult discourse as a basis for investigation, it follows that expression discloses its meaning in dialogue, where experience and communication interact and where adults can emancipate themselves both from the distorsions of language and the representations carried through language which do not belong to them.

At the beginning of this study, we were primarily concerned to establish a strategy which would make possible for adults at the end of a graduate program in andragogy the disclosure of the meaning of their learning experience. It also appeared important that this strategy insure both the dialogic dimension of expression and the emancipation from psychologism. In determining the form of expression which would give access to the understanding of one's learning experience

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theoretical elements from both linguistics and hermeneutics supported the choice of the narrative of educational experience.

According to Benveniste (1966), as soon as subjects use language, they enter the world of intersubjectivity; talking about themselves, they constitute themselves by revealing to others what they see of themselves or how they would like to be seen. Tnus, never achieved in a particular discourse about itself, the self places itself in the course of history. Yet, adds Benveniste, when one talks about oneself, the fundamental tense is the present tense (p. 248).

Nevertheless, in his discussion of Dilthey, Habermas (1975) comes to the position that the dialogic relationship takes place in autobiography. The identity of the self which, in life history, insures the continuity of life through fragmented and fugitive experience is inseparable from others since the interpretation of life puts the subject, through the socialized structure of language, in communication with others.

Considering that the narrative of educational experience is a fragment of autobiography, the potential of this form of expression appears manifold: the adults may have access through their discourse to the unity of an experience which they told in the sequence of a narrative; the understanding of learning experience is put in relation with the never-achieved search for meaning in life history; in interpretation, the meaning of individual learning experience is given in relation with intersubjectivity.

Autobiography and life-history analysis which have been used in sociological and ethnohistorical research methodology have also inspired both practice and research in adult education (Dominicé, 1982; Kaminsky, 1984; Pineau et Marie-Michèle, 1984; Warren, 1980). Yet, the theoretical basis for the methodological strategies of interpretation remains to be established.

The Educational Narrative. Description of a Practice

The exploration of the narrative of educational experience took place within a graduate course which, at the end of the Andragogy program, aims at the integration of learning. The design of the activity was the following.

First, the students were invited to say what they thought they had learned in the different courses throughout the program. To make possible the emergence of meaning and the communication with others in the group, creativity was used (synectics, projection, combinatory techniques). At that stage, the fragments of learning experience expressed in answer to the question: "what did I learn?" formed a collective list. The students were then invited to sort out those statements and keep only the ones in which they recognized themselves. To complete this, they had to give the meaning of the statements, that is to say, to express the cognitive or affective relationship which made those learning statements valuable to them and, then, they had to review how applications of learning were found in practice. At this point, the program which is similar for all the students, appears different from one student to the other.

Second, the students were invited to write the story of their learning experience. The instructions were simple: "Tell me the story of your learning, as one tells a story about something that has happened. Indeed, something must have happened in the course of this educational program. Then, tell me...". It was understood that the narratives which would not be longer than three pages would be shared with the group and analyzed collectively.

Third, once the narratives were shared with the group, the authors were put at a certain distance from their own text. Exposing themselves to the texts, both the authors and the group could produce meaning. The fact that the interpretation of the narratives took place in the group made explicit the dialogue which is implicit in a narrative written in the first person.

To insure a systematic analysis of the texts narrative grammar was used. Since Greimas' structural analysis (Greimas & Courtés, 1979; Groupe d'Entreverness, 1979) had developed a four phase algorithm to represent the transformation of a narrative, it appeared to offer a methodological frame of reference to reach the signification of the text.

This method allowed the group to identify the narrative programs, the main actors of the text and their relationships. At the discursive level, from the figures attached to the subject throughout the text, the deepest oppositions were disclosed and the significance of the transformation given. To illustrate, let us refer to a text. In the sequence, the four stages can be found as follows: 1 (manipulation) "a resource person helping, listening, informing, valorizing"; 2 (competence) "I wished to learn something else from somewhere else", 'I must perform"; 3 (performence) "I decide that from now on I shall make my choices", "I develop an ability to evaluate myself"; 4 (sanction) "I go through deep changes", "I have gone from anxiety to the pleasure of learning". The oppositions may be presented this way: I was looking for something else - I found myself; pleasure versus anxiety.

Referring to the interpretation done in the group, the students were invited, in the last part of the activity, to appropriate to themselves the different meanings that had been disclosed and either add a commentary or write a second narrative. Although the second narrative is comparable to the first one, it appears to be less centered on the details of learning and more related to the global life experience.

The Educational Narrative. Research on Adult Learning

In the course of a research which attempted to combine semiotics and hermeneutics, eight educational narratives were systematically analysed according to the structural analysis model. In general, the course of the transformation leads the subject to a positive conclusion whether it be from failure to success, from isolation to integration and, sometimes, opens up onto mythic representations of the self: "I intend to go to university when I am retired and continue to discover the world".

It is noticeable that the transformation usually starts in the self. The different narrative programs carry private values (v.g. experience, interest, team work, need of others) interwoven with the public values (v.g. diploma, grants, strike, registration). Usually, the transformation starts with the self and ends in the self. Relationships with the peers play an important role whereas relationships with the institution are hardly mentioned. At a deeper level in the text, one sees the relationship between doing (v.g. studying in the program) and being (v.g. being in contact with one's emotions). Once the main opposition is established for a narrative, it is possible to show how the meaning circulates in the text, from one pole to the other (v.g. from intellect to affectivity; from failure to success; from isolation to integration).

Elements other than the structure of the narrative also have some significance. For instance, the past tense is rarely used. The predominant form is the historical present which replays on the screen of memory a past experience. Another significant element is the use of metaphores. For instance vision and travelling reveal either the immediate aspect of learning or the process undergone.

Discussion

Although it seemed justified to borrow from semiotics a method to analyse the educational narratives, two difficulties have to be raised. First, with semiotics, meaning is found within a text and one is not allowed to talk about a referent outside the text and, second, in using a method, the interpreter is, in a certain way, left with a predetermined meaning.

To be able to understand the learning experience through a narrative and to use educational narratives as a relevant material to understand the learning process of adults, one would have to establish that the narrative is self-referential and that it is about something that happened. Referring to Ricoeur (Howard, 1982), one could apply to the narrative the following statement: "In a particular utterance there is at once a "participation" in the intentions of the speaker or hearer and - because the text is now independantly "out there" - a kind of "distanciation" and independance from the particular references which the speaker or hearer had in mind" (p. 170).

Ricoeur also says that the discourse takes a shape and that the description or the explanation of its structures make possible a reconstruction of meaning and lead to understanding. It follows that the adults may constitute themselves as subjects beyond their narrative, in allowing the text to put a question to them. The challenge of hermeneutics in practice as well as in research is to make possible as a counterpart of "distanciation" the "appropriation" of meaning.

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER CHANGES IN ROLE IDENTIFICATION AMONG INMATE LEARNERS

AUTHOR Grant S. Clarke (University of British Columbia)

The purpose of this study was twofold: a) to develop a model of changes in role identification thought to occur among inmates who participate in a prison university program; b) to test the model against the perceived experience of a group of inmates enrolled in the prison university program.

Two perspectives led to the development of a model of role identification among inmate/students. Direct contact over 2 years with inmates, instructors, prison officials and university administrators involved with the program provided a solid "feel" for the lived experience of inmate/students -- an inductive approach to the model. Role theory provided the analytic framework for the identification of socio-psychological factors associated with the implementation of the university program in four federal prisons in Canada -- a deductive approach to the model. The notion of perspective transformation further defined a significant threshold of change in inmate/students' role identifications. The five stages of the model are:

I. Recruitment stage: first exposure to the program, inmate norms and expectations are uppermost.
II. Disorientation stage: initial expectations not reinforced by experience in university program, unsure of continuing involvement.
III. Separation stage: student experiences becoming more relevant than other inmate patterns of association.
IV. Transition stage: deeper conscious commitment to goals of university program, perspective transformation in self-identity and future prospects.
V. Solidarity stage: stable and reflective relationship to program, peers, instructors. Involvement as tutors, mentors for other inmate/students.

To test the model of role identification, 70 items were developed describing the lived experience of inmate/students in each of the 5 stages of the model. Five expert judges independently assigned each item to one of the five stages. Results of the judging support the proposal that there are 5 stages of role identification. A modified Q-sort was performed with inmates using the 70 items. Inmates sorted items one at a time into one of four categories on the basis of their feelings toward the program. The four categories are: 1) how I feel now; 2) how I used to feel, but not now; 3) never felt like that; 4) don't know. All data were entered into MTS files for analysis. Analyses to be performed are: 1) Subject-Probability (SP) analysis; 2) Cluster analysis; 3) UBC SPSS:9 procedures -- Reliability, Scattergram, NPAR tests, Pearson Correlation, Condescriptive.

Thirty-three inmates in a federal prison who are enrolled in the university program constitute the sample. Transfer files at the Regional Headquarters of the Correctional Service of Canada were the source for background data such as sentence length, offence, level of education, age.

Results are pending.

Prison environments are primarily negative, intractable and opposed to positive learning and personal growth in inmates. Yet, in a specific university program in prisons inmate/students seem to learn anyway, and achieve significant personal and social growth. The educational importance of this study is its attempt to determine how and why inmates apparently rise above the negativity of the prison environment to achieve laudable educational and social goals. Knowing how and why they do is a promising cue to more effective programming in a difficult social environment.

CHANGES IN ROLE IDENTIFICATION AMONG INMATE LEARNERS

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Prison Dynamics

Among the most marginalized inhabitants of any country are those individuals who are incarcerated in "total" institutions, such as prisons, which Coffman (1961, p. xiii) has characterized as places "...of residence and work where a large number of like-situated individuals, cut off from the wider society for an appreciable period of time, together lead an enclosed, formally administered round of life." Opportunities to learn within Canadian federal prisons are heavily mediated through the exercise of the prison's traditional retributive mandate to hold the inmate in custody.

Persons processed by the criminal justice system, labelled "offenders", sentenced by courts to prison and subsequently incarcerated, experience a process of "mortification" through a series of "status degradation ceremonies" (Goffman, 1961, p. 18-20). They are psychologically and materially stripped of personal possessions, freedoms, social contact, respect and, along with identification number and the maze of prison rules and regulations, are assigned the social identity of a non-person (Sarbin and Allen, 1968; Ekstedt and Griffiths, 1984).

In conflict with these stark realities, Canadian prisons, or correctional institutions as they are called, also have a mandate "to prepare the individual for permanent return to community living as a law-abiding and contributive citizen" (Ekstedt and Griffiths, 1984, p. 223). Notwithstanding the correctional system's intransigent maintenance of custody and control above all other considerations (Thomas and Peterson, 1977) a number of treatment modalities have been implemented in the quest for a cure-all for criminal behaviour, among them the medical and the reintegration models (Ekstedt and Griffiths, 1984).

The Educational Program

Among the more promising responses to the mandate of the correctional system to do something FOR its inmates is the university program offered to inmates in four federal prisons in British Columbia. The program has been operating for over 13 years sponsored first by the University of Victoria, and most recently by Simon Fraser University. The program assumes that many inmates have cognitive deficits (lack of critical reasoning ability), a limited repertoire of social responses and limited moral reasoning ability, and that these deficits contribute to their initial and recurring choices to offend. Cognitive, social and moral reasoning deficits may be overcome by involving inmates as learners in an issue-oriented, liberal/humanities curriculum within a highly interactive and democratic community (Duguid, 1983a). The program has achieved

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international recognition as a model of prison education (Ekstedt and Griffiths, 1984). The university, under contract to the Correctional Service of Canada (CSC), administers all phases of the program. Academic centres with full-time university appointed faculty are maintained in each of the four prisons. These centres operate as "alternative" communities within the prisons (Duguid, 1983c).

The Problem

Stated in the report, The Role of Federal Corrections in Canada, is the following caveat: "Tension, which exists in all organizations, is paramount in Corrections." (1977, p.109). Tension, hostility and mistrust pervade inmate/CSC staff relations (Ekstedt and Griffiths, pp. 219-223). The university faculty and staff working in prison are not considered by inmates to be CSC staff, and in fact are not. Efforts by university faculty to cultivate a democratic, academic community have succeeded to the extent that their relations with inmate-students are non-authoritarian (Duguid, 1983c) unlike CSC staff relations with inmates. Yet inmate-students have to survive in the pervasive prison environment. They spend more time as prisoners than they do as students. The democratic academic community "remains an island in a hostile sea" (Duguid, 1983c, p. 283). They move daily between two communities which embody opposite values and which expect them to enact different roles. The resulting tension may either impel the individual to identify even more with the norms of the academic community or deter him from further involvement.

There is evidence that many inmates accomodate the tension by developing a dual role or social identity: the "prisoner-student" (Duguid, 1983b). While the concept of student role development is central to the thrust of the prison university program, no systematic study has directly addressed the phenomenon of inmates-becoming-students in order to posit a model or theory of role change and social identity among inmate-learners.

Purpose of the Present Study

This study sought to do two things: a) develop a model of changes in role identification for inmates who participate in a prison university program; and b) test the model against the perceived experience of inmates enrolled in the prison university program.

Development of the Model

Two perspectives led to the development of a model of role identification among inmate-students. Direct contact over two years with inmates, instructors, prison officials and university administrators involved with the program provided a solid "feel" for the lived experience of inmate-students -- an inductive approach to the model. Observations made during contact with the correctional system resembled Duguid's (1983b) comments regarding change in inmate-students and their development of a distinct student role.

Perceiving the concept of role to be important led to the adoption of role theory as the analytic framework for the identification of socio-psychological factors associated with inmate change as participants in the prison university program -- a deductive approach to the model. While there are many variations of social role theory, Sarbin and Allen's (1968) role theory provided a useful and comprehensive set of propositions for application to this study.

Among the key terms of role theory, "role" refers to conduct that is associated with certain "parts" or positions rather than to individuals who play them. Thus, within prison, individuals manifest behaviour according to the primary role or part they play at any given time, eg. guard, student, prisoner. Individual self-identity is larger than conduct associated with any one role.

The behaviour or overt social conduct of a person in a role or multiple role is the "role enactment". Role enactment is a process that involves (1) the role performer, (2) the person in the complementary role, and (3) a third member (or audience) who observes the process of social interaction (op. cit., p. 528). Cues from the audience guide a player's role enactment. Audiences may validate or reject the enactment. Audiences play an important part in the development and maintenance of roles over time. Two of the most important audiences inmates have are their peers and correctional staff, both of whom reinforce inmate (non-person) survival roles almost exclusively. A third important audience in this study is the academic community, composed of university faculty and fellow students both of whom are physically present, and the university administration and students on other campuses who are symbolically present. They reinforce the roles of "student", "learner", "person".

Role enactments are shaped too by "role expectations" the beliefs, expectancies, rights and obligations "...of any occupant of a social position in relation to persons occupying other positions in the social structure" (1968, p. 497). As such, role expectations form normative limits for social behaviour. They function as social and psychological imperatives to a person's conduct and cognition while enacting a role. Role expectations are determined conjointly with others in complementary roles rather than in isolation. The extent to which individuals can "see" or "locate" themselves and others in the social structure, and be "clear" about personal and others' expectations of possible role, will determine the choice and degree of involvement with that role.

In prison, where roles which embody hostility, tension and mistrust are rigidly prescribed for staff and inmates, there is no impetus to change roles or incorporate expectations to become a "learner" or "student". Thus when exposed to the competing expectations of the prison and the academic program, inmates-who become-students must deal with "role conflict" and the accompanying tension of cognitive strain. Not all inmates who enrol in the university program resolve the cognitive strain arising from conflicting prisoner and student expectations. The focus of this study is directed to those who apparently have resolved this strain through change in their belief systems (Sarbin and Allen, p.541) in what amounts to a "perspective transformation" (Mezirow, 1978).

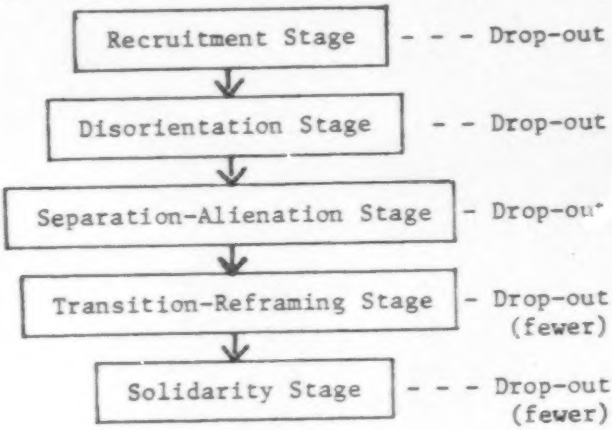
Mezirow (1978) presents a three-phased transformation cycle: (1) alienation from prescribed social roles, (2) reframing or restructuring one's conception of reality and one's place in it, and (3) contractual solidarity within which it becomes possible to participate again in society. A similar process of transformation described by Boyanowsky (1977) also incorporates these phases: (1) separation from old relationships, (2) a distinctive transition period, and (3) incorporation into the new group or relationship.

This notion of a transformation process involving sequential phases or stages of cognitive and social role development together with the elements of role theory constitute the basis for the model of changes in role identification among inmates enrolled in a prison university program.

Articulation of the Model

Conversations with inmates enrolled in the university program led to the premise of five distinct sequential stages of role identification through which inmates might pass according to factors such as time spent in the program, continued access to the program upon transfer to another institution, and personal characteristics.

Stages of the model may be depicted as follows:



I. Recruitment Stage:

For many inmates at the time of their first exposure to the university program, norms and expectations tied to their prisoner roles will predominate. As such, survival in the prison and "getting out" will be the pragmatic filters through which the "opportunity" to be a student is perceived. Most of these inmates would not at this point know or care about the expectations that the academic community will direct to them. They enrol to test out the program's strategic value ("easy time", earlier parole), not because they are committed to personal change.

II. Disorientation Stage:

Their initial expectations are not reinforced by their actual experiences as students. Their authoritarian-based, confrontational relationships with CSC staff and some other inmates are not duplicated in dealings with university faculty and more senior students. Faculty are supportive, yet demanding in a way that is new to them. They are faced with the prospect of having to modify their role enactments (more work, more class participation) as the role demands and expectations of faculty become clearer; and this fact, coupled with unanticipated praise and encouragement for initial involvement is both disturbing and disorienting because of the marked contrast with usual prisoner norms and experiences. This contrast creates uncertainty about continuing and gives rise to cognitive strain and role conflict.

III. Separation-Alienation Stage:

Continued involvement with the program increases student role skills, provides more occasions of social reinforcement by those in complementary roles (instructors, peers) and heightens role conflict to the point of requiring resolution. What is challenged is the previously held self-perception as "solid" inmates who abide by the inmate code of non-cooperation with and manipulation of non-peers.

Day-to-day experience in the academic program begins to feel more satisfying and worthwhile than other prison experience -- hence the "alienation" from the latter.

IV. Transition-Reframing Stage:

Those inmate-students who resolve their cognitive strain in favour of continued involvement with the program undergo a "perspective transformation" or change in belief concerning legitimacy of student roles. They begin to conceive of themselves as being legitimately engaged in changing their social identity through the acquisition of cognitive and social skills. They reconceptualize what is possible for them and intensify their commitment to get the most they can out of the program, believing that these personal outcomes will continue to have value outside the prison. Inmate-students now feel validated in their student roles.

V. Solidarity Stage:

Inmate-students who reach this stage become the program's most stable supporters. In the event of destabilizing events in the prison such as riots, protests, etc., they have been known to act as public guardians and advocates for the program and its resources (books, computers, etc.) even to the extent of openly opposing other inmates' attempts to damage resources associated with the program. In essence, these inmate-students see the program as "theirs". In stable times, they become tutors and facilitators of other inmates' learning.

Methodology - Test of the Model

Seventy short statements were generated in the active first person voice to reflect the subjective counterpart of the psycho-social propositions contained in the five stage model. A number of rounds of item selection and refinement occurred before proceding further with the 70 statements. Several examples of item statements are:

-There is more work than I expected
-I feel completely involved with this program

Items were printed on labels and stuck one to a card. Five expert judges (including the researcher), familiar with prisons and the particular university program were separately given an explanation of the model, then asked to sort each of the 70 statements into the stage most clearly suggested by each statement. An inter-judge coefficient of concordance on the placement of the 70 items was calculated using Kendall's W.

A modified one-way structured Q-Sort was employed with 33 men students in one federal prison. A sample of convenience is suitable for use with Q-methodology utilizing known groups (inmate students at various stages of their programs) when the object is to test a theoretical model whose structure is imbedded in the sorting procedure (Kerlinger, 1973). Subjects sorted the 70 statements on cards into four categories based on their feelings toward the university program. The four categories are: (1)how I feel now; (2)how I used to feel, but not now; (3)never felt like that; (4)don't know.

Data from the Q-Sort were subjected to Subject-Probability (SP) Analysis which calculates item by subject response profiles based on items designated as "correct". Included in the profile is a rank ordering of items from "easy" (most people get it "correct") to "difficult" (few people got them "correct"). Caution indices are generated for each item to indicate possible inconsistencies, for instance, if a relatively "easy" item (high p of getting it "correct") is missed by a number of individuals with high "passing" rates. Similarly, caution indices are produced for each subject and would be high, for instance, if an individual with a high "passing" rate missed several "easy" items. Other analyses planned include cluster analysis.

Background data was collected on subjects' age, sentence, release dates, occupational status, educational level at start of present sentence, previous federal incarceration, present year of enrolment in university and severity of most serious present offence. Basic statistics and Pearson r have been run to date.

Preliminary Findings and Implications

The coefficient of concordance for the five judges' placement of 70 items into five sequential stages was calculated to be W=0.809, CHI-SQUARE=279.20, D.F.=69, Significance=0.000. This result may be taken to mean that the five judges concur quite strongly in the placements they made. The probability of their concordance being attributable to chance is given as no greater than 0.000. This result supports the premise that five unique theoretical stages of role identification exist and that the items are construct and content valid.

Initial SP.Analyses indicate that a majority of "easy" items (ones that many subjects got "correct", in this case indicating that those statements are true for them now) are drawn from the later stages (IV and V, some III) of the model, while the opposite appears so for the "difficult" items (drawn mainly from earlier stages I and II, some III). In general, items portraying the role conflict, uncertainty, lack of understanding of program goals, etc. typical of the first two stages of the model appear to have elicited less response from those in their first year of university than might have been anticipated. Further analysis will have to determine the extent to which the situational factors like the lower security rating of this prison may mitigate the sense of role conflict suggested by the model.

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Leisure Learning, Fitness and Activity Patterns Among Older Adults

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Earlier retirement and increased life-expectancy have extended the post-retirement years and provided substantially more leisure time. Retired and soon-to-be-retired adults have roughly one-quarter of their lives still ahead of them with perhaps twelve hours of uncommitted time each day. They must make important choices about the use of that time in ways that embody lifestyle factors to promote their well-being mentally as well as physically. Most experts in gerontology argue that participation in various programs of leisure learning and leisure physical activities enhance one's free time while contributing to healthier and more productive lifestyles. At the opposite view is the stereotypical and prevailing folk more' which argues that older people should "slow down, take it easy and conserve energy" as they grow older, not because anyone denies the benefits of activity, but because of widespread misunderstandings about how much and what kind of activity is appropriate and health-promoting as one ages.

Issues in the Literature

The "sound mind in a sound body" concept is a basic tenant of our current culture and is fundamental in educational practice for life-span developmental programs of young people, and increasingly for people in their middle and older years. The disproportionate demands of the elderly on health and social services might be reduced by effective activity programs designed to improve the functional abilities of older adults and to minimize the degenerative changes to which they are prone (Guttman, et. al., 1976). Palmore (1974) examined inactivity, obesity and cigarette smoking in a longitudinal study of health factors among the elderly. Amount of exercise was the strongest predictor of illness indicators; seniors with fewer locomotor activities risked hospitalization substantially more often and poor health self-ratings occurred four times more often among those with few such activities. Astrand (1974), de Vries (1970, 1974 and 1977), and Shephard (1978) have all offered persuasive evidence that the elderly exhibit improved physical fitness and functional capacities when they maintain regular physical activity, and that the benefits manifest themselves as sustained or improved muscle mass, heart muscle power, increased blood volume and vascularization, improved oxygen uptake and reduced bone loss and brittleness due to osteoporosis.

Psychological functioning shows benefits as well, although the research outcomes are somewhat more equivocal. Sidney and Shephard (1976) reported decreases in Taylor Manifest Anxiety

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scores and increased appreciation for physical activity as a means toward relieving tension. Powell (1974) and Stamford et. al. (1974) reported improved cognitive test performance, but no changes on either of two behavioural scales. Barry and colleagues (1966) and Powell and Pohndorf (1971) suggested that lack of physical exercise accompanies declines in abstract thinking, while Botwinick and Thompson (1971) posited that decrements in psychomotor speed may be due to poor exercise habits rather than aging itself. Elsayed, Ismail and Young (1980) suggested that effects of exercise on intellectual performance may be mediated through physiological, neural, hormonal and biochemical changes as well as through an enhanced feeling of self. Sidney and Shephard (1976) argued that attitudes toward physical activity among elderly men and women reflect a higher value on "esthetic experience" and "as a means to health and fitness" compared to younger people who show interest in "pursuit of vertigo".

Still, despite these findings, the research overall remains uneven and incomplete and gives rise to several counterquestions among them these: (1) The elderly too often perceive 'physical activity' to mean 'sport', (2) the distinctions between leisure activity and physical activity are often too vague or too rigid, (3) leisure activities are rarely seen (or tested) as conducive to fitness, (4) measures of attitude, motive, or 'meaning of activity' are weakly conceptualized and operationalized, (5) notions pervade the literature that perticipation must occur in formalized or organized settings to be beneficial and (6) inventories which distinguish leisure learning as an identifiable subcomponent of seniors' activities are not reported.

Research Methods and Participants

To study these issues and counterquestions more exactly, the author and a co-researcher developed a survey battery consisting of 10 individual instruments--more or less known among gerontological researchers. A particular purpose of the study was to determine whether older adults' life satisfactions, activity and leisure patterns are better predicted by their fitness, their demographic characteristics or the reasons and meanings they attach to participation in various activities. The research literature has been unclear also in suggesting a rational for categorizing these variables as either dependent or independent, and we reasoned that an informal path analysis might disentangle some of the confusion. The information reported here comprises survey returns from 120 older adults about their health and fitness (N.A.H.D., 1974), attitudes toward aging (Kogan, 1961), life statisfaction (Neugarten, 1961), detailed checklists of physical and leisure activities (McKechnie, 1974), reasons for participation patterns and routine biographical and demographic characteristics. About half of surveys were administered in face-to-face settings, and the other half were self-administered and returned by mail.

These 120 senior respondents averaged 66 years of age ranging from 32 to 92 years (The handful of people under 50 were a pilot sample who completed and reviewed the early draft versions of the interview battery. Their responses were retained to provide a contrasting age group.) Just over a third were male, two-thirds female. Nearly half were currently married, a quarter widowed and fifteen percent either divorced or never married. Three quarters lived in their own homes or apartments, a third in retirement complexes and the remainder with relatives. Three quarters were retired, 19% working full or part time and 6% characterized themselves as full time homemakers. Just over half had completed public school or high school and the remaining 45% had experienced additional education: college or vocational/technical programs (28%), university baccalaureates (8%) or graduate degrees (9%). The 47% who reported their incomes averaged about $18,275 annually--rather above average for this age group.

Participation Rates in Leisure and Physical Activities

Profiles of their activity patterns enabled a detailed look at how older adults allocate their time and activities (see conference handout materials). The checklists probed participation levels for 59 leisure- and 61 physical activities--with respondents encouraged to add 'other activities' which the lists might have missed. The typical respondent participated in about 25% of the activities in the leisure activity list and in about 10% of those in the physical activities list, although the patterns differed widely from individual to individual. On a per-week basis, they reported some 50 hours of leisure activities and averaged about 16 different activities. The following activities were so universal that each was reported by 50% or more of the respondents: television viewing (90%), reading magazines and newspapers (82%), reading books, plays or poetry (75%), visiting and entertaining friends (71%), listening to the radio (69%), telephone conversations (56%), writing letters (55%), playing records and tapes (54%), cooking and baking (53%), dining out (52%), and bridge or card games (50%).

Respondents averaged about 4.5 different physical activities summing to about 14 hours weekly, although these were not nearly so universally performed as were leisure activities. The most common were: walking or strolling (81%), swimming (47%), keep fit exercises (24%), hiking and nature trail walking (22%), and social dancing (21%). Gardening, golf and housework were volunteered most commonly as 'other activities'. (Leisure and physical activity checklists and these adults' participation rates are available from the author)

Activity begets activity in that the leisurely active people were also the physically active (r=.36), although the correlations between activity counts and activity time were moderatly low, suggesting that people engage in a few activities intensively rather than many activities moderately. Both Life Satisfaction and Fitness were predicted by high participation levels in physical and leisure activities. Interestingly, physical participation level predicts Fitness (r=.33) better than Life Satisfaction (r=.22) and leisure activity level predicts Life Satisfaction (r=.39) better than Fitness (r=.24). Differences in activity participation rates differed very slightly between men and women, but age was a consistent predictor of participation rates(-.39 for physical and -.33 for leisure)--even better than Fitness(.32 for physical and .20 for leisure). Income was only weakly significant in predicting activity level or Fitness, and not at all in predicting Life Satisfaction.

"Impetus to Learn" in Leisure and Physical Activities

One novel feature of this study was a probe into the various forms of 'meaning' which these seniors attached to their activities. To accomplish this, a 27 item checklist of Reasons for Participation in Leisure and Physical Activities yielded a 'reasons profile' for distinguishing among the meanings which various activity patterns held for different people. The 27 checklist items clustered into 5 major headings (as determined by factor analysis) which then were labelled: Being with Friends, Improving My Body Condition, Enjoying the Activity, Clearing My Thinking and Challenging My Limits. The 'reasons profiles' in these last two categories showed that "Activity" in nearly all its forms embodies an educative and mentalistic components which we had not previously detected, nor have other researchers reported. The table shows these 27 checklist items grouped by major heading, and profiles the differences between Leisure and Physical activities for these respondents and makes it clear that the leisure and physical activities divide themselves equally but differently in their educative values to these older adults.

Throughout the analysis, the best or second best (regression) predictor of participation rates was the number of reasons which these respondents offered for explaining their patterns of leisure (r=.50) and physical activity (r=.37). More reasons implied more activities. These were the adults who had decided on an activity program, knew what they wanted out of it, reasoned through the activities which would lead to those outcomes, then followed their own program. Life Satisfaction too was well predicted by the number of reasons offered for participating in leisure (r=.26) and physical (r=.16) activities. Interestingly, Life Satisfaction was better predicted by the numberof activities than by the time devoted to either leisure or physical activity. Women offered consistently more such reasons than men (r=.18) and younger people more than older (r=.17). Neither education nor income showed much relationship to people's reasons for their activity patterns. Overall, our results differed from many other researchers in that much larger fractions of variance in leisure (RSQ=.53) or physical (RSQ=.50) participation and in Life Satisfaction (RSQ=.56) were predicted from the variables we conjectured might bear on participation rates (5 health and demographic predictors and 5 attitude, reasons and meanings predictors).

Leisure learning activities formed a substantial component of their activities, but again in some unexpected ways: These adults distinguished clearly between learning activities which they judged to be 'recreational' in nature and those which they engaged in as 'individual learning projects'. These were evidenced by comments such as "I've been going to concerts for years, but now it's time I learn something about theatre." or "When I took a course in Japanese flower arranging, I thought it was for fun, but it's turned into real work--and I like it!". Moreover, a surprising number of respondents insisted that certain of their physical activities were (in the words of one) "...educative of my body, if not my mind". A substantial number (38%) explained their leisure activity pattern as "Allowing my creativity to have free reign", but explained their physical activities as "Helping me to think things over" or "Clearing my head and improving my thinking"! In short, the mentalistic component is an express and deliberate antecedent to their

Activity Tables

REASONS FOR LEISURE AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

REASONS FOR SELECTING ACTIVITIES	LEISURE	PHYSICAL
	PERCENTAGES	
Being with Friends		
being together with my friends	87%	58%
meeting new and interesting people	51	46
sharing experiences with people close to me	49	36
interacting or competing with others	20	12
needing an "excuse" to meet with my friends	16	7
subscore for Being with Friends	45	32
Improving My Body Condition		
promoting my well-being and fitness	46	70
promoting my chances for a longer life	30	46
maintaining or improving my body condition	30	70
improving my physical appearance	27	45
giving myself a healthy workout	25	45
following my doctor's orders or advice	20	28
enjoying the sense of physical exertion	17	46
improving my love life	10	10
subscore for Improving My Body Condition	26	45
Enjoying the Activity		
enjoying the sense of skilled human activity	35	31
feeling the activity's excitement and challenge	33	32
losing myself in the activity itself	32	16
learning new skills and activities	29	31
subscore for Enjoying the Activity	32	28
Clearing My Thinking		
enjoying a sense of solitude and peace	39	39
allowing my creativity to have free reign	38	15
balancing my physical,social,emotional needs	35	37
reducing my level of stress or tension	34	34
clearing my head and impoving my thinking	31	30
keeping "in-tune" with my personal being	30	28
helping me to think things over	22	27
subscore for Clearing My Thinking	33	30
Challenging My Limits		
enhancing my sense of personal accomplishment	44	31
challenging my level of personal ability	31	29
testing the limits of my capacities	29	27
subscore for Challenging My Limits	29	27
TOTAL SCALE: MEAN NUMBER OF ITEMS CHECKED	8.8	9.6
STANDARD DEVIATION	5.5	6.0

Fitness, Life Satisfaction, Leisure and Physical Activities all interact, and to be more active is to be more fit; but Life Satisfaction was a more predictable attribute than was Fitness. None of the measures were powerfully affected by age or income, so neither Fitness nor Life Satisfaction seem to be reserved for the young or the well-to-do. The best predictor in nearly all instances was the number of well-articulated reasons offered by these older adults for doing what they do--either physical or leisure. The exemplary persons are those who know what they want and why, and then get on with doing it!

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Symposium Abstract

The Relevance of Hermeneutics for Research and Practice in Adult Education

The number of interpretative studies presented at AERC in recent years has increased. Many of them clearly bear the influence of what might be described a "phenomenological perspective." While these phenomenological studies vary in terms of how closely they are aligned to the methodological rigour set down by prominent philosophers associated with 20th century phenomenology (Edmund Husserl, in particular) they all place an emphasis on *understanding*, rather than on explaining, various aspects of the adult's life-world through reflection and careful description. There is a shared assumption in these studies that the question of *meaning* is of paramount importance.

The purpose of this symposium is to demonstrate how hermeneutics, which in its two major approaches is closely aligned with the philosophical phenomenology of Edmund Husserl and Martin Heidegger, can further develop the potential of interpretative studies in adult education, laying out appropriate criteria and research procedures.

Hermeneutics is precisely defined as being concerned, primarily, with various approaches required to interpret the written documents of our culture. In the first presentation, this concise definition is given more substance in an overview of hermeneutics and its leading exponents. It traces the connection with philosophical phenomenology and establishes the relevance of hermeneutics for adult education research, especially with regard to the adult learning process.

In the second presentation a careful account is given of the very distinctive approaches of, probably, the two leading exponents of modern hermeneutics, Paul Ricoeur and Georg Gadamer. Examples are given to show how these orientations can be brought to bear in the assessment of adult education programs and policy.

The third presentation outlines a particular methodological stance of hermeneutics which undertakes to combine both phenomenological and positivistic approaches in studying the adult learner.

The Relevance of Hermeneutics for Research and Practice in Adult Education

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Hermeneutics: An Overview and its Potential for Adult Education Research

Adèle Chené.

A symposium on hermeneutics and adult education appears relevant in the context of the actual debate on quantitative and qualitative research. In educational science, as well as in other human and social sciences, the need to establish the scientific basis of research has brought many researchers to adopt the model of the natural sciences. Relying on a positivist epistemology which either reduces all theoretical statements to observation statements (logical positivism; logical empiricism)or emphasizes the role of theory construction (critical rationalism), those researchers have applied to the investigation of human and social phenomena the methods of explanation, prediction and testing common to empirical science.

The concern with meaning which is at the core of hermeneutics brings us back to the 19th century when philosophers were seeking to establish an epistemology for the human sciences which would account for the difference between them and the natural sciences. Hermeneutics was born with Schleiermacher. For him, hermeneutics, which works at the appropriation of meaning through interpretation, also has the critical task of eliminating misunderstandings. The development of hermeneutics also owes much to Dilthey who concerned himself with the foundations of history as a science and placed in opposition the two concepts of explanation and understanding, explanation drawing general laws from observation of facts, and understanding giving us access to the individual in a life context.

Heidegger was a student of Dilthey's and Gadamer, a student of Heidegger's, but the differences in positions need to be underlined. Heidegger broke away from Dilthey by making understanding an ontological, rather than an epistemological, matter and by dissociating hermeneutics from the question of communication. Gadamer went beyond existential hermeneutics to emphasize the "linguisticality" of understanding. Explicit in interpretation, understanding is seen by Gadamer as the fusion of horizons, which means that what is understood is common to the author and the interpreter.

Phenomenology and hermeneutics are both concerned with meaning but they differ in theoretical aspects and resort to different methods. Centered on intentionality, phenomenology aims at clarifying the conditions that make human experience possible and turns to description for elucidation of meaning; with Husserl, phenomenology nevertheless kept the subject captive in idealism. Husserl did not recognize the historicity of thinking or of language whereas, for hermeneutics, "interpretation is an open process which no single vision can conclude" and "the subject of which it speaks is always open to the efficacity of history" (Ricoeur, 1981, 109, 111).

Bleicher (1980) has distinguished three strands in contemporary hermeneutics:
1) Hermeneutical theory represented by Betti is concerned with a general theory of interpretation as the methodology for the human sciences; 2) Hermeneutic philosophy brings together Heidegger and Gadamer who stressed the context of tradition in which the interpreter relates to the object of interpretation; 3) Represented by Apel and Habermas, Critical hermeneutics applies itself to explaining the distortion of understanding in communicative interaction and associates understanding with the process of emancipation through the critique of tradition and authority rather than through mere interpretation.

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The relevance of hermeneutics for adult education can easily be drawn. Adult educators may, for instance, use the concept of innovative learning, anticipatory and participatory (Botkin and al., 1979) or focus on the development of individuals. In either of these cases, hermeneutics will help them disclose the meaning of an historical process which is both individual and social. Interpretation of texts and actions as we find in Ricoeur will give them access to the understanding of the educational narrative which is inseparable from the narrative of one's life history. Critical hermeneutics as found in Habermas will help them sort out the internalized symbolic systems which impede innovation and freedom.

In the AERC proceedings of the past five years, the only abstract directly concerned with hermeneutics is by Mezirow (1984) who, refering to Habermas's theory of communicative competence, sets out to establish the foundation for understanding the mission of adult education. Matkin (1980) stresses that the meaningful, interpretive elements are most relevant to adult education research, since there is in adult education an avowed built-in sensitivity to its subjects. In contrast, in dealing with the difficulty of analyzing life history material, Warren (1980) reduces the "remarkable insights and understandings" to "tentative and delicate interpretations." In two abstracts by Stanage (1983, 1984) phenomenological clarification is adopted.

From what we have said about hermeneutics it follows, on one hand, that the understanding of textual strategies would be most appropriate for the interpretation of life history material and, on the other, that a critical approach to language and to social reality would achieve the phenomenological research done by Stanage on the Will-to-Learn (AERC 1983) and on Empowerment and Transformation (AERC 1984).

The understanding of the meaning of experience and the communication of meaning are at the core of education. If hermeneutics has concerned itself with education (Heidegger, Gadamer, Habermas), it also seems to us that, in a way, no educational research takes place outside of hermeneutics.

The Hermeneutical Approaches of Hans-Georg Gadamer and Paul Ricoeur and Applications for Adult Education and Research

Michael Collins.

For both Gadamer and Ricoeur, hermeneutics is concerned with interpretation: its paramount task, the disclosure of meaning from texts (written documents), communicative action (discourse), and human conduct that can be modeled on texts for the purpose of analysis. Ricoeur offers this working definition: "hermeneutics is the theory of the operations of understanding in their relation to the interpretation of texts" (Ricoeur, 1981, 43). Gadamer emphasizes the unending task of hermeneutics in uncovering meanings which normally elude our grasp, or are distorted, without continuous and deliberate interpretative effort on our part.

Since hermeneutics shares with phenomenology the assumption that the problem of meaning is paramount (Collins, 1984, 180), phenomenology provides for Gadamer and Ricoeur the philosophical basis for their scholarly work. Gadamer's rejection of method and technique (instrumentalism) as a means to understanding human experience draws him very close to the phenomenology and ontological concerns of Heidegger. While dealing in some detail with Heidegger's contribution to contemporary hermeneutics, Ricoeur's intention to retrieve methodology and establish hermeneutics as a scientific endeavor, rating epistemological over ontological concerns, means that his hermeneutics is closer to the phenomenology of Husserl than is Gadamer's. Certainly, the hermeneutics of both scholars takes their interpretative endeavors beyond Husserlian phenomenology which confines descriptive investigations to either the act of experiencing (noesis) or the object (event) experienced (noema). And they have abandoned, unlike their predecessors Dilthey and Schleiermacher, the methodological move of Husserl's phenomenological enquiries whereby a deliberate attempt is made to put aside (through "bracketing") all beliefs and prejudices about the nature or essence of things or events under investigation (Collins, 1984, 183).

The role of language as the universal medium from which an understanding of human experience can be derived is central to the hermeneutics of both Gadamer and Ricoeur. Cultural heritage, traditions, are expressed through the signs of written language, or the utterances of discourse, which offer themselves for interpretation. According to Gadamer these "lingual significations" should not be reduced to instruments which can be manipulated at will since instrumentalism of this kind leads to distortions in communication and a concomitant loss of meaning. For Gadamer, the whole of our being is disclosed through language which mediates our relation to reality. However, in dialogue, language is not just in the possession of one person; it is the universal medium for understanding through interpersonal communication. Only by observing their use in interpersonal communication can the rules of language be ascertained: that is, the rules of language are derived only in a meaningful context where they become concrete.

In the case of written documents, Gadamer emphasizes that a text finds new meanings in different hermeneutical situations so that it surpasses the meaning of its author. Hermeneutics entails mediation: it is not merely an endeavor to reconstruct the meaning of its author. For Gadamer, the text stands available for new comprehensions, and for every new comprehension the history of the interpretator inevitably connects with the process of mediation.

In many important respects, Ricoeur is not that far away from Gadamer. He agrees that "the hermeneutical task is to discern the 'matter' of the text and not the psychology of the author," and states that "the essential question is not to recover, behind the text, but to unfold, in front of the text, the 'world' which it opens up and discloses" (Ricoeur, 1981, 111). However, Ricoeur does not share Gadamer's standpoint that hermeneutics is dominated, to its detriment, by the quest for procedure and technique and he wants to incorporate explaination as well as understanding into the hermeneutical endeavor. Hermeneutics for Ricoeur is as much an epistemological as it is an ontological undertaking. He argues emphatically for a systematic investigation of the language. Taking the sentence as a basic unit of discourse, he suggests that meaning can be analyzed in both objective and subjective dimensions focusing, first, on what the sentence means and, then, on what the speaker means. (This is not to say that Ricoeur believes that the text in totality can be understood by a reduction to sentences as in strict linguistic analysis. Further, it is important to note that for Ricoeur, as well as for Gadamer, human dialogue and action display a sense that can be interpreted in a similar manner to written documents).

In maintaining that hermeneutics cannot treat the problem of method and technique as secondary, Ricoeur relies on the notion of *distanciation* by which the subjective intentions of the author are subordinated to the objective meaning of the text: "The text is, *par excellence*, the basis for communication in and through distance." (Ricoeur, 1981, 111). The methodological approach recommended by Ricoeur to achieve "distanciation" has recourse to the theory of speech-acts found in the works of Austin and Searle which suggest that discourse can be analyzed on the following three levels: "1) the level of locutionary or propositional act, the act *of* saying; 2) the level of the illocutionary act (or force), what we do *in* saying; 3) the level of the perlocutionary act, what we do *by the fact that* we speak." (Ricoeur, 1981, 134).

As critique, the hermeneutical approaches of Gadamer and Ricoeur have much to offer practice and research in adult education. Gadamer, in particular, reminds us that repeated attempts have to be made at critical understanding if we are to overcome taken-for-granted prejudicial attitudes that overlay our practice and research. At the same time, however, we should consider Ricoeur's cautionary note about the "hermeneutics of suspicion" which pre-supposes that certain distortions and oppressive structures are already embedded in the situation under investigation. While not

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arguing that such analyses are incorrect, these deterministic restrictions on the interpretative process are to be borne in mind when considering texts and learning situations where "conscious raising" about pre-determined oppressive structures is uppermost. In any event, the possible distorting effects of the "hermeneutics of suspicion" are mitigated if we take into account, along with Gadamer, that there can be no canonical interpretation, and the role of hermeneutics as meta-critique, or critique of critique.

When we consider the most prominent texts in adult education which deal with topics such as continuing professional education, practice in adult education, and adult learning and development, it becomes apparent that interpretations along the lines suggested by either Gadamer or Ricoeur are required to disclose significations not touched upon by those scholarly syntheses and overviews. We can do more with these wide-ranging standard texts than merely deriving from them, in a taken-for-granted fashion, operational definitions for guiding practice and hypothesis testing.

The orientations of Gadamer and Ricoeur can be brought to bear in analyzing policy documents in adult and continuing education. In addition, they offer ontological and epistemological foundations for adult educators who are looking for sound justification to go beyond narrowly defined accountability criteria associated with summative procedures which restrict many formal program planning and evaluation endeavors.

Finally, the adult learning process itself can be characterized as a hermeneutical situation where dialogue, free from coercion, is facilitated as the means towards understanding and relevant action. It is in this context (that is, the teaching/learning situation) that Gadamer's analysis of methods and techniques poses a particular challenge to adult educators; especially to those who espouse the notion of self-directed learning.

Relevance of a Selected Hermeneutical Methodology to the Study of the Adult Learner

Jean-Pierre Theil.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the conditions under which a hermeneutical methodology can be pertinent to research on adult learning. First, we present the main epistemological assumptions upon which Gould and Shotter (1977) base their claim that a psychological hermeneutic of human actions can be conducted. Then, we shall present Peters' research on adult problem-solving as an example of a study carried out within a hermeneutical framework. Finally, we shall address briefly some methodological strategies of Huberman's and Miles' qualitative data analysis design which can be seen as depending on a hermeneutical framework.

According to Gould and Shotter, human actions and acts must be conceptualized as text-and speech act-analogues (defined as any sequence of human actions to which one can assign a meaning) and thus, be dealt with in a hermeneutical interpretation framework. In the speech act model, the "parole" (speech act) does not possess any meaning except for the one related to the "intention to mean" of the speaker. To understand the intended meaning, the interlocutor must interpret the speaker's parole, i.e. relate it to the speaker's conceptual system. In the same way, the meaning of a behavioural act cannot be elucidated without considering the agents who have taken it and the nature of their intentions. Consequently, "the hermeneutical scientist must not stand apart from his subject matter...but be himself within the -hermeneutical circle- which is the whole complex of a person's conceptual systems and psychological make-up by reference to which the meaning of his actions must be elucidated" (Gould et al, 1977, 9). In addition, the relation between one's intention to act and the action taken can't be conceptualized as a cause/effect relation because "the link between intentions... and the actions which arise from them is non-contingent and can't be established by empirical observation: for if the actions were not carried out, the intentions or desire ascription would, ceteris paribus, have to be withdrawn" (Gould et al; 1977, 10).

Since some adult education principles place an emphasis on the autonomy of the adult learner and the critical place of his/her life experience, the authors' suggestion to adopt hermeneutical framework for conducting scientific enquiries on human actions appears particularly relevant to the study of the adult learner.

Nevertheless, if the authors have strongly rooted their psychological hermeneutic, they provide few operational strategies (apart from indicating a possible increasing role for conceptual analysis) to cope with the "attractive nuisance" of interpreting human actions instead of explaining them. Moreover, they tend to overemphasize in their proposed interpretation strategy, the impact of the context of actions (mainly speaking of the subject's because-motives and from an action/sequence of actions perspective) to the prejudice of the "con-text" influence (of the subject's in order-to motives and the causative impact of the physical and social situation where the subject's action takes place).

Like Gould and Shotter, Peters (1981) assumes that human actions are intentional and rule-governed and that describing adult behaviour strictly from the point of view of the observer is failing to appreciate the point of view of the actor. Consequently, he has chosen a hermeneutical framework to study adult learning and problem solving in natural settings. To cope with the dangers which might lead to over-interpretation, Peters has adopted an interative approach during which he has collected introspective accounts where the subjects were not required to analyse their own cognitive process but to describe the actions they have taken to learn. Peters' research is a good example of a hermeneutical methodology which can produce a model of individuals' learning strategies in the context of their particular problems.

Finally, we wish to introduce a selected qualitative research method which presents various aspects of an hermeneutical methodology but which explicitely copes with the "bias risks" connected with the choice of the interpretation perspective. According to Huberman and Miles' qualitative data analysis design (1984), the researcher himself is "his best interpretative tool" provided he is not only aware of the biases that can lead to over-interpretation but devotes his efforts in designing operational strategies to handle the problem. To cope with biases which might accompany reports and the interpretation of the researcher, the writers have constructed a set of techniques which fall under the following headings: 1) a systematic decentration, 2) triangulation techniques, 3) predictions and replication techniques, 4) documentation strategies. Moreover, even though the writers acknowledge the pertinence of the interpretation stance, they also tend to explain behaviour in terms of causality whenever it is possible. "We believe that social phenomena exist not only in the mind but also in the objective world...This stance does not exclude "verstehen" or inter-subjective resonance" (Huberman et al; 1984, 19-20).

In conclusion, it appears that a hermeneutical methodology is relevant to the study of adult learning under its various forms, provided it is systematically designed to cope with the risks of misunderstanding due to interpretation, and provided an adopted hermeneutical framework does not prevent an alternative approach. As Huberman and Shotter state, "we believe...that any method that works - that will produce clear, verifiable, replicable meanings from a set of qualitative data - is grist for our mill, regardless of its antecedents" (1984, 17).

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Paper Abstract

Jurgen Habermas's Concept of Communicative Action and its Implications For The Adult Learning Process.

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Habermas's concept of communicative action is integral to his detailed and wide-ranging Theory of Communicative Action. The German text of The Theory of Communicative Action was published in 1981 and it is already apparent that the translation of its two volumes will make an enormous impact on all the human sciences in the English speaking world. It is a far reaching analysis which has emerged from Habermas's long-standing concern with the problem of distortions in human communication especially in the way they are linked to the growing rationalization of modern society. As yet, Habermas would claim, no theory of human action has managed to render both a comprehensive and a rational account of those distinctions between the practical/ethical activities of our everyday lifeworld and the functions determined by our social systems. Habermas's larger theoretical endeavor offers a perspective on human action which incorporates both the rationalistic (technical) and the practical (ethical) dimensions of human experience, and it is founded upon his concept of communicative action.

Adult educators, as researchers or practitioners, should be conversant with the concept of communicative action since it takes us beyond the alternative theoretical assumptions (eg. "behaviorist", "humanistic/phenomenological", and "Marxist/Freirean") from which current adult learning and teaching strategies emerge.

This paper undertakes a careful investigation, incorporating hermeneutical interpretations and critique, of the concept of communicative action which discloses its meaning and draws out its practical import for the adult learning process. The interpretative orientations of both Georg Gadamer and Paul Ricoeur have been adopted in the hermeneutical task of the paper.

The interpretation of the concept of communicative action is rendered completely in the light of Habermas's account of prevailing sociological concepts of action which he reduces, for analytical purposes, to "the teleological model of action," "the concept of dramaturgical action," and "the concept of normatively regulated action." At the same time, the consequences of these three concepts are elucidated in terms of their manifestation in typical adult learning situations.

Finally, our analysis of the concept of communicative action enables us to indicate the extent to which prevailing models of instruction and prescriptive programming formats, as well as humanistic (phenomenological) and social change (Freirean) emphases fall short in accounting for either the rationalistic or the everyday lifeworld dimensions of human experience.

JURGEN HABERMAS'S CONCEPT OF COMMUNICATIVE ACTION AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR THE ADULT LEARNING PROCESS

Michael Collins*

Introduction

The concept of communicative action is integral to an understanding of Jurgen Habermas's *Theory of Communicative Action*, the first volume of which has recently been translated into English.[1] This magnus opus of today's leading representative of the Frankfurt School tradition will likely achieve the prominence anticipated by some social theorists. Habermas's Theory of Communicative Action is a far-reaching analysis which has emerged from his long-standing concern with the problem of *distortions and loss of meaning in human communication*, especially in the way they are linked to the growing rationalization of modern society. As yet, Habermas would claim, no theory of human action has managed to render *a comprehensive and a rational* interpretation which takes into account both the practical/ethical activities of our everyday life-world and the functions determined by our social systems. His larger theoretical endeavor, founded on the concept of communicative action, offers a perspective on human action which incorporates both the rationalistic (technical) and the practical (ethical) dimensions of human experience. It adds another dimension to the sociology of knowledge and has important implications for adult education as it steers a course between hyper-rationalization and naive subjectivism.

One of the major concerns for those who reflect on the current state of adult education practice is the extent to which a growing predilection for technical competence, as an ideology, and for systematic formulations is achieved to the detriment of practical and ethical orientations usually upheld as central to the meaning of adult education. These practical/ethical orientations emanate from concepts of self-directed and voluntary learning. They are undermined, more especially, by widely disseminated literature in adult education which describes and advocates the notion of self-directed learning, and its voluntary advertences, while prescribing for us in a very instrumental fashion how self-directed learning is to be achieved. The fact that the authors are unaware that the instrumentalism (directed self-direction, as it were) of their systematic formulations for achieving self-directed learning actually "colonizes", to use a term of Habermas, the terrain they have staked out under the rubric of "andragogy" underscores the need for us to explore means of integrating ethical/practical and systematic aspects of our field of practice. For this reason, the major concern of The Theory of Communicative Action to construct a two-fold view of society that integrates the "lifeworld" paradigm (concerned with practical/ethical day-to-day actions of what Alfred Schutz defines as "normal wide-awake adults"[2]) and the "system" paradigm is of direct relevance to adult education. The key to this undertaking is Habermas's notion of communicative rationality which is derived from the concept of communicative action.

Interpretative Approach

In this essay, we shall follow a sequence set by Habermas in undertaking an interpretative outline of *Karl Popper's theory of the third world* followed by analysis of three sociological concepts of action defined by Habermas as *teleological*, *normatively regulated*, and *dramaturgical*. These interpretative outlines constitute the necessary background to an account of the *concept of communicative action*. I shall incorporate implications for adult education as part of the on-going interpretative process.

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Since the concept of communicative action is fleshed out into a wide-ranging theoretical treatise over the course of two formidable scholarly volumes, my interpretative treatment is unavoidably sketchy. If it does appear insufficient to support the implications drawn for the adult learning process, I am hopeful that sceptical colleagues will at least consult the larger work before writing off the claims of this abbreviated report as unsubstantiated. In this context, we are mindful of Hans-Georg Gadamer's hermeneutics[3] through which there can be no canonical interpretation of a text since it stands open to ever new interpretations. The interpretative task here is one of *mediation* to our own situation as we attempt to disclose some of the unspoken possibilities of the text in terms of the adult learning process. At the same time, we will be setting out a preliminary critique of the ideologies, or pre-suppositions, underlying instructional and programming models in adult education.[4]

Three World Theory

Habermas is concerned with presenting a concept of action which combines mutual understanding with a rational approach that is free from all aspects of coercion. He draws on Karl Popper's Three World Theory to analyse the rationality potential of teleological, normatively regulated, dramaturgical, and communicative action concepts according to how they account for the relations between an individual and his or her world. (Surely the area of focus when adult educators talk of self-directed learning).

Habermas cites the following passage from Popper's 1967 paper, "Epistemology without a Knowing Subject":

> We may distinguish the following three worlds or universes: first the world of physical objects or physical states; secondly, the world of consciousness, or of mental states, or perhaps of behavioural dispositions to act; and thirdly, the world of *objective contents of thought*, especially of scientific and poetic thoughts and of works of art.[5]

He enlarges on Popper's third world concept, incorporating all aspects of cultural tradition including social institutions. The action-oriented power of cultural values embedded in social institutions is crucial to Habermas's notion of communicative action and represents a radical transformation of Popper's conceptualization.

According to Habermas's analysis of Popper's position, "the entities belonging to each of these worlds have a specific mode of being: physical objects and events, mental states and episodes, and semantic contents of symbolic formations."[6] The latter are generated from a productive human mind and are an indication of the world of objective mind or, for Habermas, cultural tradition. "But though they are themselves products, they confront subjective mind with the objectivity of a problematic, an uncomprehended complex of meaning that can be opened up only through intellectual discovery."[7] This process of discovering autonomous problems (some of which may be insoluable) in an unimpeded fashion can be facilitated in adult learning situations only if the effects of symbolic artifacts such as standardized curriculum designs and excessively formulaic prescriptions are recognized as impositions and, hence, problematic.

Simply stated, then, we have a conception of (1) the hard physical world, (2) the mental world, and (3) the social world (as augmented by Habermas to include cultural tradition). While there is an immediate inter-change between the first and second worlds and the second and third worlds, interactions between the first and third worlds occur only through the mediation of the second. (In Habermas's conceptualization, unlike that of Popper, there is *not* a direct correspondence between all

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entities of the first and third worlds. This is a result of Habermas's incorporation of cultural values into the third world category). This analysis challenges basic empiricist assumptions and is, above all, a rejection of behaviorism since "the relations between entities of the first and second worlds cannot be conceived exclusively in terms of the causal model that holds for relations between entities of the first world themselves."[8] As such it is a renunciation of those models of needs' assessment, program planning, and evaluation as well as curriculum formats based on fundamental empiricist and behavioristic assumptions.

In paving the way for his development of the concept of communicative action, Habermas dwells on Popper's three-world theory in order to establish that "the worlds form a reference system that is mutually pre-supposed in communicative processes."[9] Contrary to the situation envisaged by fundamental empiricist assumptions, "participants in communication who are seeking to come to an understanding with one another about something do not take up a relation only to the one objective world."[10] They refer to things in the subjective and social worlds in addition to events, and potential events, in the objective world.

Teleological, Normatively Regulated, Dramaturgical, and Communicative Concepts of Action

According to Habermas, the various theories of human action can be reduced, for the purpose of his analysis, to the four distinguishable concepts previously cited, and he deals first of all with the concept of teleological action. The model represents utilitarian or instrumental orientations. It presupposes relations between an individual and a taken-for-granted world of existing state of affairs. "The model equips the agent with a 'cognitive-volitional complex', so that he can, on the one hand, develop intentions with the aim of bringing desired states of affairs into existence."[11] The central feature is that of making a decision with a specific end in view and guided by current maxims and legitimated strategies. This is the model of action underlying Tylerian constructs for curriculum design (including Cyril Houle's typology), Malcolm Knowles' formulations for self-directed learning, standardized curriculum formats such as 'competency-based' learning modules, and formal needs' assessment designs.

According to the presuppositions of a teleological concept of action, individuals react primarily with one world--i.e. the objective world. Of course, designers of the kind of formulations cited above do not necessarily interpret their intended actions according to the teleological concept: it is their prescriptions which fall within the model.

In the case of the concept of normatively regulated action, the individual is envisaged in interaction with the social world to which he or she belongs as well as with the objective world of existing states of affairs. The concept places emphasis on the way people in a social group orient their actions towards common values. It refers us to expectations that people will comply in a given situation, and when behaving rationally, with appropriate commonly held norms. The focus is on normatively defined behavior rather than on predicted events. This orientation is apparent in various group learning situations which aim at consensus building, and in Freirean approaches to adult learning where the intent is for learners to reflect upon those regulatory norms (for the purpose of 'conscious raising') that determine their day-to-day lives. (The deterministic--that is, non-rational--character of the latter approach is exemplified by its explaination that individuals who are unable to interpret their reality according to the underlying ideology of oppression have failed "to commit class suicide").

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Within the model of dramaturgical action Habermas accounts for those concepts of human action in which a person "evokes in his public [that is, 'significant others'] a certain image, an impression of himself, by more or less purposefully disclosing his subjectivity."[12] According to this model, access to a person's intentions (personal subjectivities) is monitored through thoughts, attitudes, desires, and so on to which only he or she has private access. Thus the presentation of self is central to the concept. It is exemplified in adult learning situations by the 'humanistic' approaches (such as those stemming from Carl Rogers) and 'phenomenological' orientations where autonomous learning is stressed without recourse to predicting specific, instrumentally determined, outcomes. Standards of evaluation are derived from intentions, desires, and feelings and are expressed in highly subjective terms. (However, the possibility exists for others to make some sort of objective assessment of an individual's subjective claims).

Finally, it is through the concept of communicative action that Habermas intends to move beyond the determined objectivism of theories of action encompassed by the **teleological** model and the relativism of action theories described under the other two concepts. The concept of communicative action refers to the process entailed when people "seek to reach an understanding about the action situation in order to co-ordinate their actions by way of agreement."[13] Its rationality does not rely on a method but, rather, emanates from interpretation: that is, from a practical concern with "negotiating definitions of the situation which admits to consensus." The place of language as the medium of communication is paramount. Language is, at one and the same time, the distancing (objectivating) medium and the means for mutual understanding within a relevant context. With regard to collective praxis for adult educators, the concept of communicative action points to the creation of adult learning situations in the form of dialogical communities, relying on neither the historical determinism of Freirean perspectives, for example, nor the subjectivism associated with 'humanistic' theories of learning as a basis for validation. This requires a serious commitment to the practical tasks of discussion, questioning, dialogue, debate, and conversation which are presently seriously impaired by the methodological procedures of learning approaches characterized within the teleological framework.

Habermas concludes from his analysis of the function of language as the medium for coordinating human action that "only the communicative model of action pre-supposes language as a medium of uncurtailed communication whereby speakers and hearers, out of the context of their pre-interpreted lifeworld, refer simultaneously to things in the objective, social, and subjective worlds in order to negotiate common definitions of the situation."[14] By contrast, the teleological model of action takes language as the means through which people are brought to accept those beliefs, intentions, and legitimized knowledge already identified a successful and relevant orientation to the world. For example, in adult education practice, this means that language is used to convey the interests and ideology of planners of 'competencies', instruments for self-directed learning, and schemes for instructional design.

While approaches emanating from the normative and dramaturgical models of action do not deploy the language in a manipulative fashion as do teleological orientations, they lack the comprehensive and rationality claimed by Habermas for his communicative action model. "The normative model of action pre-supposes language as a medium that transmits cultural values and carries a consensus that is merely reproduced with each additional act of understanding."[15] And the dramaturgical model of action is limited in that it "pre-supposes language as a medium of self-presentation,"[16] playing down the significance of linguistic components which lead to inter-personal understanding.

According to Habermas's analysis, the concept of communicative action integrates all three world concepts which are manifested either singly or in pairs within the other three models of action. Moreover, communicative action does not entail immediate relationship to something in the objective, social, or subjective worlds. Rather, direct reference is first made to other individuals. "The concept of communicative action presupposes language as the medium for a kind of reaching understanding, in the course of which participants, through relating to a world, reciprocally raise validity claims that can be accepted or contested."[17] Herein lies the rationality potential of Habermas's concept of communicative action.

Habermas's analysis of the four concepts of human action--referring us to the way each of them interact with the objective world, the mental world, and the social world--provides a theoretical basis for disclosing the shortcomings of current approaches in adult learning. At first glance, strategies that emerge from the teleological model have the most appeal since they are very systematic in providing rational criteria. However, as we see from the foregoing interpretation, pre-packaged curricula, typologies for learning and programming, technical formats for needs' assessment and evaluation, instrumentation for guiding self-directed learning, etc. presuppose a one-world view. Their rationality is acquired through imposing restrictions on learning possibilities. When they are deployed to steer the program, they impoverish the adult learning process. The fact that such strategies are often presented as means to self-directed learning, self-paced learning, etc. does not alter the fact that their one-dimensional world view is frequently coercive and an impediment to self-directed learning.

While approaches to adult learning emerging from the normatively regulated and dramaturgical frameworks are not restricted to a one-world view (since they can account for two world interrelationships), they short-change the rational dimension and are not as comprehensive as the communicative action model. Consensus-building strategies (normatively regulated), enacted through various group techniques, do not account for the role of the "presentation of the self" in determining relevant action whereas the criteria for action of 'humanistic' (dramaturgical) approaches are confined in a subjective mode to the individual's experiencing of his or her world. The problem with the rationale underlying the 'humanistic' perspective is that the individual is obliged, if consistent, to adopt either an antagonistic or defensive stance towards different viewpoints held by others. That is, a person speaking or acting from the individualistic standpoint of a 'humanist' is likely to carry the conviction that his or her own view of reality is the only true reality.

It could be argued that Freirean approaches are implied by both the normatively regulated and dramaturgical frameworks. In any event, the dialogic interaction of Freirean pedagogy falls short of Habermas's notion of communicative action because its rationality potential is impaired by the fact that it rests ultimately on a deterministic view of the social world.

Conclusion

Apart from its greater comprehensiveness and complete avoidance of coercive or manipulative strategies, the concept of communicative action as presented by Habermas, has a firm rational basis from which to validate events of the adult learning process without the intervention of formalized pre-determined guidelines. It has permanent standards of rationality and universality derived from language. However, as long as adult learning situations and program formats characterized by the teleological model are taken-for-granted and, hence, legitimized, they present a formidable obstacle to the emergence of adult learning strategies suggested by the concept of communicative action.

For Habermas, self-understanding and a "performative attitude" (surely prerequisites for any approach to a notion of self-directed learning which is not an idealized fiction) are only acquired in a process of dialogue with others towards mutual understanding. This inter-subjective understanding presupposes rational discourse where the positions held are continuously assessed on the basis of their validity. This does not, of course, preclude the gathering of appropriately selected outside resources, including institutionalized curricula, to the learning situation. Yet still, the challenge for adult educators is to ensure that the learning process is steered by rational open dialogue towards inter-subjective agreement which is contextually relevant,[18] and as free as possible of externally imposed constraints.

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[1] Jurgen Habermas. The Theory of Communicative Action. (Two Volumes). Trans. by Thomas McCarthy. Boston: Beacon Press, 1984.

[2] The notion of "wide-awakeness" appears frequently throughout the works of Alfred Schutz. The term is indicative of an attitude of alertness to events of everyday life and responsiveness to their requirements. See, for example, Alfred Schutz, "On Multiple Realities," Collected Papers. Vol.I. The Hague: Martinus Nijhoff, 1973.

[3] Hans-Georg Gadamer. Philosophical Hermeneutics. Trans. by David E. Linge. Berkeley: U.C.L.A. Press, 1977.

[4] While confirming that the tasks of hermeneutics and the critique of ideology are "interpenetrating," Paul Ricoeur far more than Gadamer (and Habermas, for that matter) wants to distinguish between them. "The gesture of hermeneutics is a humble one of acknowledging the historical conditions to which all human understanding is subsumed; that of the critique of ideology is a proud gesture of defiance against the distortions of human communication." Paul Ricoeur. Hermeneutics and the Human Sciences. Trans. by John B. Thompson. Cambridge Univ. Press, 1981. P.87. However, Ricoeur does set out the conditions for approaching a critical hermeneutics (pp.87-100) and his reservations about critique of ideology have nothing with protests about "ad homineu attacks" which arise when legitimized interests are subject to critical analysis.

[5] Jurgen Habermas. Op. Cit., p.76.

[6] Op. Cit. p.77.

[7] Ibid.

[8] Op.Cit. p.78.

[9] Op.Cit. p.84.

[10] Ibid.

[11] Op.Cit. p.87

[12] Op.Cit. p.86.

[13] Op.Cit. p.88.

[14] Op.Cit. p.95.

[15] Ibid.

[16] Ibid.

[17] Op.Cit. p.99.

[18] For a somewhat compressed account of the notion of relevance and its significance for adult and continuing education, see Michael Collins. "The Theory of Relevance: Determining Competence in Adult Education," AERC Proceedings, Lincoln, Nebraska. 1981.

COOPERATION TO IMPROVE TEACHING AT A LAND-GRANT UNIVERSITY

Gary J. Conti
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Abstract

Land-grant colleges were created with the mission of conducting research and training in the twin areas of agriculture and the mechanical arts. As they developed, the third mission of disseminating useful information to practitioners was added. Unfortunately, many times departments within land grant institutions are only involved in one aspect of this mission. When this occurs, it is very easy for the land-grant institution to lose sight of its purpose and to resemble a traditional higher education institution. At the land-grant institution for Texas, two departments joined together on a research project to concentrate on the comprehensive mission of the university. Here the Agricultural Economics department is responsible for expanding the knowledge base and teaching the discipline of agricultural economics. Interdisciplinary Education's functions include studying the field of adult education and providing staff development for extension agents.

The purpose of this study was to investigate various factors that could contribute to the teaching effectiveness in three senior level agricultural economics classes involving either computer instruction or computer usage. Demographic data relating to the student's economic and academic background, pre and post measures of academic success, and student learning style scores were gathered. All were analyzed to provide information that could be used to improve teaching effectiveness.

Data were gathered at two levels. Lower level analysis involved frequency distributions to develop a profile of the students. While some of the profile data was predictable, others provided insights related to the changing nature of students enrolling in agricultural economics programs. Learning style data revealed a diversity in the preferred conditions, content, and mode of learning by the students.

The higher level data analysis involved the use of analysis of covariance to assess the relationship between learning style and academic success. This analysis indicated that those with certain learning styles achieved more in the course. Unfortunately, those desiring greater independence and self-direction in their learning did worse in the course than other students.

This study provided the instructors with actual information about their students. In the past, program planning was based on assumptions about the students and an institutional view of their needs. It is now possible to begin teacher development activities and curricular planning for this group with models that are compatible with the adult education literature base.

COOPERATION TO IMPROVE TEACHING AT A LAND-GRANT UNIVERSITY

Gary J. Conti
Robert A. Fellenz

Introduction

Land-grant colleges were created with the mission of conducting research and training in the twin areas of agriculture and the mechanical arts. As they developed, the third mission of disseminating useful information to practitioners was added. Although land-grant colleges have changed in many ways over the years and although the basic nature of the American society is far different than during the formative era for these colleges, their three part mission of research, training, and dissemination still exists. Unfortunately, many times departments within land grant institutions are only involved in one aspect of this mission. When this occurs, it is very easy for the land-grant institution to lose sight of its purpose and to resemble a traditional higher education institution.

At the land-grant institution for Texas, two departments joined together on a research project to concentrate on the comprehensive mission of the university. The Agricultural Economics department is responsible for expanding the knowledge base and teaching the discipline of agricultural economics. Interdisciplinary Education's functions include studying the field of adult education and providing staff development for extension agents. Thus, one department represents a content area critical to the land grant college's heritage. The other represents the process area for effectively teaching that content. Together they had the potential of combining the research activities and instructional knowledge inherent in the land-grant colleges mission. This cooperation confirms the 1882 conviction of Regent Peabody of Illinois that the "conscientious teacher" in the land-grant colleges would find time too short

> To conduct his pupil over the well-known ground of clearly established truth, and that the illumination which he can and must shed upon that truth will absorb all the means and time and strength at his disposal. His first and paramount duty is instruction. If his investigation will help his instruction, let him investigate; if it interferes with his instruction, let him obey the law and TEACH. (cited in Ross, 1942, p. 137)

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate various factors that could contribute to the teaching effectiveness in three senior level agricultural economics classes involving either computer instruction or computer usage. Demographic data relating to the student's economic and academic background, pre and post measures of academic success, and student learning style scores were gathered. All were analyzed to provide information that could be used to improve teaching effectiveness. At this later stage, the adult educators were responsible for providing ideas for teacher development, and the agricultural economic staff provided insights related to the content specificity of the courses and to the applicability of the teaching suggestions.

Background

The federal government has had a role in supporting public education since the 1785 ordinance for disposing of the western lands. Madison's Journal "leads clearly to the conclusion

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that the welfare clause of the Constitution was understood by those who wrote it to include public education" (Mort, 1936, p. 45). This interest manifested itself in the form of land grants. The colonial heritage of Massachusetts and Connecticut of granting tracts of land for the support of public schools was continued after the Revolutionary War by both the states and the central government (Swift, 1931, pp. 3–70). The historic Ordinance of 1785 reserved a tract of land in every western township for public schools, and the supporting ordinances of 1787 providing for the contract sale of lands allowed for the endowment of universities from these grants. A milestone in this support was the passage of the Morrill Act in 1862. This act provided grants of land for endowments for colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts. While these colleges could not exclude other scientific or classical studies, they had to include military tactics. This military requirement reflects the North's recognition during the Civil War era of the need for trained military leaders from all sections of the country. No other restrictions were placed on these colleges which would evolve into a "peculiarly American institution" (Ross, 1942, p. 1) which "were not to be trade or vocational institutions for training working farmers and mechanics but colleges or departments for educating leaders in the sciences" (Ross, 1942, p. 88).

During the formative years, the land-grant colleges evolved an admittance policy and curriculum to fulfill De Tocqueville's (1966) observation that "in democratic communities the interest of individuals, as well as the security of the commonwealth, demands that the education of the greatest number should be scientific, commercial, and industrial, rather than literary" (pp. 75–76). The early influence of the industrialists was reflected in the incorporation of practical sciences into the curriculum and the emphasis on training engineers. However, the growing political influence of the agricultural interests through the Grange and Populist movement resulted in the passage of the Hatch Act of 1887. This act authorized funds from public land receipts for establishing agricultural experiment stations tied to the land-grant colleges. These "stations brought system and gave direction to the land-grant colleges, and more than any other factor assured their continuation" (Ross, 1942, pp. 141–142). They also provided the basis for providing the third mission of the colleges by making them an adult education agency for reaching out to practitioners and extending educational services.

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to gather data that would allow the agricultural economics faculty to improve their efficiency in teaching courses which involved either computer instruction or computer usage. Therefore, two types of data were collected on all 453 participants in these classes. Of these complete records were obtained for 423. Some of the data was demographic information which was used for constructing profiles of the students. The other date consisted of scores from instruments. Learning style scores were obtained from the Canfield Learning Style Inventory. Academic gain in the courses was determined by pretests and posttests in each class. The demographic data was organized into simple frequency distributions, and the relationship of academic gain to learning style was analyzed by means of analysis of covariance.

Thus, the research design is an ex post facto study with a higher education population. However, it can be classified as an adult education study because of its focus on staff development and for its uniqueness within a land-grant institution. Although adult educators readily affirm the need for assessing student needs and building programs around these needs (e.g., Knowles, 1970), subject material specialists in the content areas at land grant institutions often teach form a didatic mode. They do not see themselves as educators; instead, they view themselves as professors. This study represents an effort to overcome this barrier by objectively looking at the students and using this information to improve the art of teaching.

Finding

The demographic data indicated that the stereotype for the student enrolling in agriculturally related courses may be false. Although the classes were dominated by males (69.3%), they did not have a traditional farm background. Only 21.3% had actually been reared on a farm with active involvement in its operations. Over 50% had an urban background, and nearly one-half of these had only limited farm exposure. Two-thirds of these had no experience in Future Farmers of America or in 4-H. Despite their limited farm experience, they came from an agricultural heritage; 80.4% of their fathers and 76.6% of their mothers are from a rural setting. However, only one-quarter of these derive any income from farm production (18.8%) or agriculturally related nonproduction (6.1%), and 79.2% reported that their parent's primary income was not from farming. Over 70% of the parents no longer live on a farm.

Although 73.5% of the class members are currently majoring in agricultural economics, most did not start with a career goal in this area. Nearly two-thirds have changed majors at least once; 71.9% have attended another college or university; 43.5% have transferred into the College of Agriculture from another college within the university. Despite their lack of agricultural experience or original goals in the area of agricultural economics, most did well in the courses. The average grade for students in these three courses which were taught by five different instructors was 3.9/5.0 with only four failures. Posttest scores averaged 26.6/100 points higher than pretest scores.

The Canfield Learning Style Inventory (LSI) measures "those affective variables that seem to effect learning, and which contribute to satisfactory and effective adjustment to the teaching-learning situation" (Canfield, 1983, p. 1). The LSI measures the conditions, content, and mode preferred by the learner and the learner's level of expected success in the learning situation. One-third of the group expressed a preference for learning under conditions that encouraged warm, friendly, and supportive relations with others. They enjoy working in teams and interacting personally with other students and the instructor. Another one-third preferred structured learning conditions that are logical and orderly with clearly defined instructional procedures. They want specific information on classroom assignments and rules, and they desire meaningful assignments of sequential activities. Nearly 20% expressed a desire for having learning conditions controlled by an authority figure. These students appreciate classroom competition which compares them to others and which keeps them informed of their standing. In the classroom they prefer a disciplined environment with a knowledgeable instructor. Only 10.9% of these upper-level students expressed a preference for independence of action in an atmosphere that would allow input into goal setting for the course. (Canfield, 1983, pp. 14-18)

The content score on the LSI indicates the major areas of interest of the students. In this area, 35.2% indicated a preference for working with inanimate objects as opposed to with people, numbers, or language. This group is likely to identify with the task rather than the people side of a job and to easily be absorbed with equipment, working models, and simulators. The second largest group, which contained 31.9% of the students, had a strong preference for numeric learning activities involving computations, numbers, and mathematical manipulations. The third ranking group, which included 21.5% of the students, expressed a dominant preference for activities that involve other people. Learning activities in this content area are associated with working around or with people and do not necessarily imply working with them in a friendly and mutually supportive way. The smallest group with 11.4% of the students expressed a preference for dealing with qualitative symbols. This group enjoys activities involving conversations, writing, and conceptually imprecise and open-ended discussions. (Canfield, 1983, pp. 19-20) Thus, even though these students are majoring in the same subject field and in a field with a clearly defined knowledge base, they differ widely in their preference for content.

The LSI also indentifies a dominant preference for mode of learning. Its four categories are listening, reading, iconics (i.e. the expression of concepts in interrelated and visual forms other than language), and direct experience which involves actual contact with the subject matter rather than dealing with some representation of the topic in language or iconic form (Canfield, 1983, pp. 21–23). This group showed a preference for learning by listening (38.2%) and direct experience (29%). Another 20.8% favored iconic learning activities. Only 11.9% of this college group stated a preference for learning through the study of printed materials. Thus, just as with conditions and content of learning, this group demonstrated much diversity in desired learning mode.

The expectancy score measures the degree of success the learner anticipates experiencing in learning activities. The students in this sample expected to do well in their learning: 31.4% anticipated doing excellent or superior work, and 30.9% felt that they would perform at an above average level in learning situations. Only 23.5% expected to do about average, and 14.2% predicted that they would do poorly or fail. The overall 3.9/5.0 grade point average for the students in this study represent an accurate student self-assessment in this area.

In addition to profiling the students for increased instructor awareness for improved teaching, the relationship between learning style and student achievement was investigated. Analysis of covariance was used to determine if student achievement differed because of the student's dominant learning style. Academic achievement was measured by means of teacher developed and validated tests which were administered at the beginning and end of each course. No significant differences were found in the conditions areas of affiliation with others ($F = .91$; $df = 5/417$; $p = .46$) and structure ($F = .80$; $df = 5/417$; $p = .53$). Authority approached a very low level of significance ($F = 1.80$; $df = 5/417$; $p = .13$) and is worth noting because those wanting a well-controlled classroom scored higher than those not desiring a strong authority situation. A significant relationship was found in the conditions area of independence ($F = 5.70$; $df = 5/417$; $p = <.001$). Those expressing a desire for greater independence and self-direction did much worse in the courses than other students.

Significant differences were found in two of the areas of preference for content. Qualitative learning activities ($F = .89$; $df = 5/417$; $p = .47$) and learning by working with inanimate objects ($F = .95$; $df = 5/417$; $p = .44$) were not significant. However, those who have a high preference for numeric and logical activities scored significantly higher ($F = 2.37$; $df = 5/417$; $p = .05$) than those low in this area. On the other hand, those who have a strong preference for working with people scored significantly lower ($F = 3.88$; $df = 5/417$; $p = .004$) on the tests than those with other dominant styles.

No significant differences were found among the various preferences for mode of learning. Reading ($F = .28$; $df = 5/417$; $p = .89$, viewing ($F = .23$; $df = 5/417$; $p = .92$), and direct experience ($F = .64$; $df = 5/417$; $p = .64$) showed no difference. Listening displayed a low level of difference ($F = 2.05$; $df = 5/417$; $p = .09$). However, within this group those with a moderatley low and those with the highest scores scored higher that the others. Although the scores were very similar for these two groups, those with a moderately low preference for listening activities scored higher than all other groups.

All expectancy scores were significant. They were as follows: (1) Superior ($F = 4.49$; $df = 5/417$; $p = .001$); (2) Above average ($F = 2.94$; $df = 5/417$; $p = .02$); (3) Average ($F = 4.41$; $df = 5/417$; $p = .002$); and (4) Poorly ($F = 3.11$; $df = 5/417$; $p = .015$). Each group performed exactly as predicted.

Discussion

Land-grant colleges were designed as democratic institutions to do research, teach knowledge within the college, and disseminate this information to practitioners. It was structured to be open to all social classes, to teach a variety of subjects but with an emphasis on agricultural and mechanical arts, to train future leaders in practical areas related to production, and to improve the general quality of life for working Americans. As these land-grant colleges have grown into major universities in all areas of the country, the "publish or perish" syndrome of higher education has transformed the emphasis within the land-grant university from teaching to research. In this change, the transmission of lower level knowledge has triumphed over learning. Students have been stereotyped without any knowledge of their idiosyncrasies; no student needs assessments are conducted; large group lecturing prevails.

In the midst of this didacticism, a group of agricultural economics instructors challenged the mode. As teachers, they posed educational questions about the nature of their students and about learning. Stepping outside their content area, they questioned the process in which they are involved. Since their expertise is not in the discipline of education, they initiated a cooperative research study with adult education staff. The rationale for this linkage resided in the compatible missions in agriculture of the two departments and in the potential for the generation of staff development activities based on research findings.

As a result of this study, agricultural economics instructors at Texas A&M University have a vast amount of knowledge about their students that can be used for planning and teaching courses. The student profile indicates that during the last generation the composition of students majoring in agricultural economics has changed. Although their parents' background is rooted in farm life, the current students lack these experiences. Content of the courses may need to be redesigned to reflect this and critical experiences that are lacking need to be incorporated into the curriculum. Since nearly one-half of the students start out with a career goal other than agricultural economics and since many start in schools other than the land-grant universities, the factors contributing to these changes should be investigated.

Agricultural economics recruits students with a diversity of learning styles. This may partly be explained by the dual career options available to graduates of the program. Some find employment in task oriented jobs related to economic issues within a variety of institutions such as local banks, federal banks, or agriculturally related corporations. Others find themselves employed in jobs that have direct daily contact with the public such as agricultural implement store salesman or manager. While those with a preference for numeric activities excell in the program, those with a people orientation do less well. Consequently, those that will be involved in one of the major employment areas may not be getting the type of training they need or acquiring the learning strategies to deal with a variety of situations in which they will surely find themselves. As a major university training future leaders, the faculty should also examine the impact of its present teaching on those seeking a greater degree of self-direction and control of their educational plan. An equally important issue relates to the future of the field in the Information Age. What is it about the field of agricultural economics that attracts students who show a strong apprehension to learning by reading, and what impact will having a dominance of these types of learners have on the future development of the field? As instructors of agricultural economics probe for answers to these process related questions in education, the adult education literature base should prove a valuable source for ideas and methods for improving teaching and program planning efficiency within the land-grant university.

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER "Assessing the Impact of Adult Literacy Education: A Pilot Study"

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ABSTRACT

This progress report of a longitudinal study of the impact of literacy education programs for adults includes four types of data (academic achievement, economic gains, community participation, and personal development). Subjects are students in five types of literacy programs: basic education classes, GED/high school diploma classes, post-secondary remedial classes, ESL classes, and volunteer tutorials. Data collected at program entry, program exit, and at one follow-up interval are analyzed in terms of five academic indicators, four economic gain indicators, five community participation indicators, and seven personal development dimensions. The data for students who completed the entry, exit, and follow-up instruments (N=38) are analyzed and compared with data for students who have thus far completed the first two instruments only (N=152).

ASSESSING THE IMPACT OF ADULT LITERACY EDUCATION: A PILOT STUDY

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INTRODUCTION

The Adult Literacy Impact Study is a cooperative longitudinal research project designed to gather, analyze, and disseminate data which documents the impact of adult literacy/basic education programs upon participants. A five-member team from the University of Minnesota, Literacy 85, and Adult Basic Continuing Education (ABCE) programs collaborated in the development of the study. Convinced of the need to document the significance of literacy education to the St. Paul-Minneapolis (MN) metropolitan area, the research team, in 1983, invited literacy providers from ABCE programs, post-secondary institutions, and volunteer projects to present their ideas for research related to adult literacy. Ideas which emerged from this process included: (1) frustration over the lack of public and private support for literacy services, (2) a clear sense of the value of these services to the community, and (3) awareness of the lack of systematic program data collection.

Statement of the Problem

While various studies have described the extent of adult illiteracy on national and state levels, few have provided information about the impact of literacy education programs. As a result, efforts to seek additional public and private funding for literacy education for adults are met with questions about the accomplishments of current program efforts. In addition, attempts to expand literacy offerings into business and industry sites face inquiries from the corporate sector about the kinds of results that can be expected from such programs. Literacy programs which now serve only a fraction of the population in need of such services (approximately 3% to 5%) are seriously hampered in their efforts to attract necessary funding and other community support. Specifically, the problems this study addressed were:

- The need expressed by practitioners in the field for persuasive evidence about program impact to inform policy makers in education, government, business, and the corporate/foundation community.
- The absence of systematic data collection among literacy providers in ABCE, post-secondary, and private/tutorial programs. Thus, most programs have little or no exit or follow-up information to support fundraising, program evaluation efforts, or program improvement and new service development.

In designing this study, the research team noted several other efforts to document program impact: the Godbey-Mohsenin study (1982); the New York State Department of Education survey (1981); and the Darkenwald-Valentine study (1984).

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Purposes of Study

The study addresses two general purposes: (1) to document the impact of literacy programs for participants and for the community; (2) to develop and test a data collection process involving literacy providers from the major delivery systems.

METHODOLOGY

The study was designed as a longitudinal project in which data would be collected as students entered and exited programs, and at one or more follow-up points after students completed their programs. In order to determine the impact of literacy education programs, decisions were made as to (1) the areas where impact was possible, (2) what "indicators" of impact would be studied, and (3) how data pertaining to the selected indicators would be collected.

Determining the Indicators to be Studied

The obvious beneficiary of literacy education programs is the individual student who acquires additional basic academic skills. These newly acquired competencies may enable a person to become employed, to improve his or her employment situation, and to pursue further schooling or training programs. It is also believed that a person's self-confidence improves as he or she experiences success in learning. An adult student is also a member of a community. The community, therefore, may be an indirect beneficiary of literacy programs as program participants contribute community and civic services and add to the economic base.

Thus, four areas were selected for examining the impact of literacy education programs -- academic achievement, economic gains, community participation, and personal development. Specific indicators believed to impact on each of the four areas were selected to study. Five indicators of academic achievement, four economic outcomes, five indicators of community participation, and seven dimensions of personal development were identified.

Selection of the Subjects

Adults who were reading or computing below the 12th grade level comprised the subjects for this study. The adults were registered as students or assigned to tutors in one of five types of literacy programs in the St. Paul-Minneapolis area.

Instructors and tutors in 15 classroom/volunteer project sites were recruited to participate in the study. Three sites were recruited for each of five program areas -- basic education classes, high school diploma and GED classes, English as a Second Language (ESL) classes, post-secondary remedial classes/tutorials, and volunteer tutorials.

Instrumentation

A questionnaire was developed to measure the subject's behavior regarding the economic and community participation outcomes, and to acquire selected demographic information. A Program Entry, a Program Exit, and a Follow-up form were developed. Measures of academic achievement in reading comprehension and computation, for native-born subjects, were obtained from the Adult Basic Learning Examination (ABLE) instrument Levels 1, 2, and 3 (Forms A and B). The Standard Test of English Language (STEL) was selected to measure achievement in grammar, usage, and vocabulary of foreign-born subjects. The Self-Assessment Scales (SAS) instrument was selected to provide a measure of seven dimensions of self-esteem.

Data Collection

Subjects completed the Program Entry, the Program Exit, and the Follow-up questionnaires as appropriate to their progress in the program. In addition, all native-born subjects completed the SAS and the ABLE reading and/or computation test consistent with their program enrollment. Non-native born subjects were administered the STEL and the ABLE reading and/or computation test if deemed appropriate by the instructor; they did not complete the SAS test because it was considered inappropriate for persons reared in other cultures. Entry and exit questionnaires were administered by teachers/tutors. Follow-up questionnaires were administered by a research assistant to those who could be located and who agreed to participate. The data were collected between September, 1983, and December, 1984.

Table 1
Number of Subjects Providing Data

Entry Questionnaire		438
Dropped program before exit	180	
Continuing in programs	106	
Exit Questionnaire		152
Declined/unable to locate	51	
Awaiting follow-up	63	
Follow-up Questionnaire		38

Data Analysis

The data were entered and analyzed on an Apple IIe microcomputer. Missing data were treated as "0's." The DB Master (Version 4) software program was used to develop a format for entering data and for computing frequencies and means; percentages were also computed.

Limitations of the Study

Some limitations must be acknowledged in interpreting the data. First, the conclusions cannot be generalized to the total population as the subjects do not constitute a sample but a group of individuals who voluntarily agreed to participate in the project. Second, errors of measurement are involved. In addition to the limitations inherent in any instrument, there were undoubtedly errors of recall and of understanding the testing procedures since subjects with limited skills in reading and with English were involved. Third, there were problems with the test administration procedures. It was sometimes impossible to obtain exit data when students stopped attending because of getting a job or for other reasons. Also, teachers and tutors cooperated with mixed degrees of enthusiasm; when teachers/tutors understood and believed in the project, more individuals were tested and the data obtained were more complete.

FINDINGS

In this section, the "Follow-up" subjects (N=38) who were tested at program entry, upon program exit, and at one follow-up interval will be described; data pertaining to the academic achievement, economic gains, personal development, and community participation indicators will be presented. Data for subjects who completed program entry and program exit tests (N=152) are included for purposes of comparison. In addition, the experience of using this data collection process will be summarized.

Description of the Subjects

Of the thirty-eight subjects, there were more males (58%) than females (42%); their range in age was from 18 to 69, and the mean age was 34.2 years. One-half were U.S. citizens (N=21, 55%) and native speakers of English (N=20; 52%) . The ethnic background was primarily Asian and Caucasian (47.4% and 20.7% respectively); Black and Hispanic adults comprised 13% and 5% of the group. The Follow-up subjects included proportionately slightly more males, more older adults, more U.S. citizens, more native speakers of English, more Blacks and more Hispanics than the Entry/Exit subjects group. However, the percentage of Asians was the same, and the percentage of Caucasians was lower in the Follow-up group.

The Follow-up subjects acquired more responsibility for household income as they progressed through literacy programs and six to twelve months after they had completed their programs. 34.2% (N=13) of the subjects had 50% or more responsibility for household income at entry; this percentage rose to 42.1% (N=16) at exit from programs and to 52.6% (N=20) at Follow-up. When compared to the larger Entry-Exit group, fewer Follow-up subjects had responsibility for generating household income when entering programs.

The mean number of family members per household was essentially the same (3.9) for both groups at both program entry and program exit; however, the mean number increased to 4.2 for subjects at the time of the Follow-up interview.

The programs completed by the Follow-up subjects were: adult basic continuing education (44.7%), post-secondary remedial (36.9%), ESL (15.8%), and volunteer tutorials (2.6%). This compares to the program enrollments of the Entry/Exit subjects of approximately equal proportions in ABCE (34.2%), post-secondary remedial (33.6%), ESL (31.6%), and volunteer tutorials (0.7%).

Academic Achievement

Five indicators of academic achievement were studied. For Test Levels 1 and 2, mean grade level equivalents (GLE) from grade 1.0 to grade 9.0 are shown. For Level 3, the ABLE raw scores are equated to percentiles of 10th grade students performing at that level. See Table 2 for the ABLE reading and computation and STEL test scores. Thirty-two subjects completed the ABLE Reading and/or STEL tests, whereas 24 students completed the ABLE computation tests. Some variation in the number of students taking the different tests occurred because some subjects may have been tested at one level upon program entry and at a different level upon exit. In addition, some students took both the ABLE Reading and the STEL tests at program entry, and some students took the ABLE Computation test at program entry but did not complete a mathematics unit in their programs.

Table 2
Means and Percentiles for
ABLE Reading and Computation and STEL Test Scores

Test	READING						COMPUTATION						STEL	
	Level 1		Level 2		Level 3		Level 1		Level 2		Level 3			
Period	N	$\bar{x}$GLE	N	$\bar{x}$GLE	N	$\bar{x}$%	N	$\bar{x}$GLE	N	$\bar{x}$GLE	N	$\bar{x}$%	N	SS$\bar{x}$
Entry	9	4.4	15	6.5	8	.64	3	5.8	20	7.2	4	.54	4	150
Exit	6	4.7	13	7.5	9	.57	1	4.2	13	7.9	10	.52	4	225
Follow-up	6	4.2	12	7.2	11	.59	3	4.3	6	6.0	15	.48	3	133

In addition, the percentage of subjects who had a high school diploma or GED certificate was 21.1% (N=8) at Entry, 42.1% (N=16) at Exit, and 44.7% (N=17) at the Follow-up test. The percentage of subjects admitted to post-secondary institutions increased from 31.6% (N=12) at entry to 39.5% (N=15) at exit, and to 42.1% (N=16) at the follow-up interview. Completions of post-secondary education programs (i.e., two-year certificates/degrees) rose from 7.9% (N=3) at entry to 18.4% (N=7) at exit and remained at that level at the follow-up interview.

Compared to the Entry/Exit subjects, the Follow-up students performed at higher levels on five of six ABLE tests at program entry, and on three of six tests at program exit. The Entry/Exit subjects performed better on the STEL test than did the Follow-up subjects. The Follow-up subjects, however, showed greater gains in percentage of subjects with high school diploma/GED certificates, with admission to post-secondary educational institutions, and with post-secondary education program completions than did the Entry/Exit subjects group.

Economic Indicators

Five indicators of economic improvement for literacy students were examined. Generally, there was an increase in the percentage of subjects who were employed, in the mean number of hours worked for pay, and in the mean dollar per hour wage. The percentage of subjects receiving some form of financial assistance remained about the same; however, declines were noted for medical, Food Stamps, AFDC Refugee, and AFDC assistance. The percentage of respondents receiving Veteran's Benefits rose at program exit and remained the same at the time of the follow-up interviews while the percentage of respondents receiving General Assistance increased. This pattern is essentially the same as found for the Entry/Exit subjects.

Table 3

Comparison of Entry, Exit, and Follow-up Students on Economic Variables

VARIABLE	ENTRY (N=38)	EXIT (N=38)	FOLLOW-UP (N=38)
Percent employed	23.7% (N= 9)	31.6% (N=12)	47.4% (N=18)
Mean number of hours worked for pay	24.4 (N= 9)	32.2 (N= 9)	38.8 (N=18)
Mean wage ($/hour)	$4.61 (N= 9)	$4.98 (N= 9)	$5.19 (N=17)
Percent receiving financial assistance	52.6% (N=20)	55.3% (N=21)	55.3% (N=21)
Percent receiving:			
Medical assistance	15.8% (N= 6)	18.4% (N= 7)	-0- (N= 0)
Food Stamps	18.4% (N= 7)	18.4% (N= 7)	15.8% (N= 6)
AFDC - Refugee	5.3% (N= 2)	5.3% (N= 2)	2.6% (N= 1)
AFDC	-0- (N= 0)	15.8% (N= 6)	13.2% (N= 5)
General Assistance	5.3% (N= 2)	10.5% (N= 4)	10.5% (N= 4)
Veteran's Benefits	7.9% (N= 3)	7.9% (N= 3)	13.2% (N= 5)

Community Involvement

Six behaviors which adults may contribute to the community were studied. There were increases in three areas--being registered to vote, doing volunteer work, and becoming a U.S. citizen, whereas there were increases in each of the six areas for the Entry/Exit subjects. See Table 4.

Personal Development

Seven dimensions of how native-born subjects think about themselves were obtained from reponses to the Self-Assessment Scales instrument. In general, there was a decrease in mean scores on all seven dimensions between program entry

Table 4
Percentage of Subjects Reporting Involvement in Community Activities

VARIABLE	ENTRY (N=38) N	ENTRY (N=38) %	EXIT (N=38) N	EXIT (N=38) %	FOLLOW-UP (N=38) N	FOLLOW-UP (N=38) %
Voted in last election	11	28.9	11	28.9	11	28.9
Registered to vote	9	23.7	12	31.6	13	34.2
Do volunteer work	5	13.2	5	13.2	9	23.7
Officer in organization	2	5.3	2	5.3	1	2.6
Serve on committee	2	5.3	2	5.3	2	5.3
U.S. Citizen	21	55.0	21	55.0	23	60.5

and program exit; however, the Follow-up mean scores exceeded both the mean Entry and Exit scores. This pattern differed from the mean scores for the Entry/Exit subjects; the mean program Exit score exceeded the Entry scores for all seven dimensions of the SAS test, whereas the Follow-up mean scores exceeded all but one Entry mean score, and four of the seven Exit mean scores.

Data Collection Process

After 15 months' experience with the data collection process, four observations have emerged. First, assessing the impact of literacy programs, while complex and challenging, still seems to be an attainable goal. A cooperative approach involving the various providers of literacy education remains a guiding principle. Second, administrative supports--cooperation of program administrators and funding to supply teacher and student stipends--are essential. Third, teacher training in the use of testing as an educational tool facilitates incorporating data collection into the teaching process. Fourth, creative solutions to keeping track of very mobile students are critical for obtaining exit and follow-up data.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

For this group of literacy students, the following conclusions seem warranted: (1) Adult literacy programs serve a diverse group of students. The typical student could be a male or female over 30 years of age, usually unemployed, but having some responsibility for the income for a household of four persons. During 1984, the student was probably an Asian or Caucasian. (2) Progress in both reading and computation skills was made by students in programs; however, there were declines in skill levels in both areas for some after completing a program. (3) Students were able to show greater progress in computation skills than in reading. (4) The percentage of employed students doubled between program entry and follow up. (5) The number of hours worked and the wages received also increased. (6) Participation in programs increased student use of some sources of financial assistance (e.g., Veteran's Benefits) but students decreased their reliance on other sources (e.g., Medical Assistance, Food Stamps). (7) The number of students who did volunteer work and who became U.S. citizens increased during the study period. (8) While dimensions of self-esteem may decline during the schooling process, these same dimensions seem to exceed entry levels when measured during follow up. (9) Students studying with volunteer tutors were difficult to include in this study. As the study progresses, implications will be drawn concerning evaluation and research, instruction, policy and funding decisions, and programmatic and administrative concerns.

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ADULT EDUCATION AND EDUCATIONAL EQUALITY:

A STUDY OF THE INTERRELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE ROLE OF ADULT EDUCATION AND OBSTACLES TO EDUCATIONAL EQUALITY

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Educational equality is a complex and nebulous concept. It is an awkward metaphor for a fundamentally mathematical concept that has been applied to human relationships. In some way, however, it apparently represents an ideology of basically desirable outcomes in our society, evoking support and agreement with its very usage. To date, most adult education literature has dealt with the concept in a prescriptive and near-sighted manner. It has offered either short-term solutions or directed adult educators to achieve such vague and global goals as "improved quality of life" or "raised living standards".

The objective of this study is to analyze the fundamental, underlying obstacles that prevent the attainment of educational equality and relate them to the role of adult education in achieving educational equality.

To clarify the nature and condition of educational equality, its development is traced from the Industrial Revolution to the present day. The evolution of the concept from one which emphasizes provision of opportunity to one which focusses on equality of outcomes is explored. This notion of educational equality calls for changes in the fundamental structures, beliefs or values of the existing social, economic and political orders. The challenge to achieve equality of outcomes, then, is a form of social change. To gain a clearer understanding of educational equality from this perspective, the equilibrium and conflict paradigms of social change are examined and illustrated. These paradigms shape the theoretical framework used to examine the underlying obstacles that block educational equality. The static nature of the social structures and relationships are identified as the major obstacles to the achievement of educational equality. in achieving equality, then it must broaden its focus beyond merely establishing new programs or instituting reforms. Larger changes to the social relationships and structures must be attempted. Adult education must decide which of political, social, economic or cultural relationships and structures This paper states the case for adult education to focus The paper concludes with cautions for adult education to consider in pursuit of this elusive but tantalizing phenomenon.

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Introduction

Educational equality is a complex and nebulous concept. It is an awkward metaphor for a fundamentally mathematical concept that has been applied to human relationships. In some ways, however, it apparently represents an ideology of fundamentally desirable outcomes in our society, evoking support and agreement with its very usage. To date, however, most adult education literature has dealt with the concept in a prescriptive and near-sighted manner. It has offered either short-term solutions or directed adult educators to achieve such vague and global goals as "improved quality of life" or "raised living standards".

The objective of this study is to analyze the fundamental, underlying obstacles that prevent the attainment of educational equality and relate them to the role of adult education in achieving educational equality. Initially, this paper clarifies the present nature and condition of educational equality by tracing its evolution. This is followed by a discussion of the two paradigms of social change within which educational equality occurs. Finally, the paper suggests a role for adult education to play in bringing about educational equality.

Evolution of the concept

The concept of educational equality gained prominence during the Industrial Revolution. Prior to that time, most education occurred within the family and was an attempt to perpetuate that economic and social unit. The Industrial Revolution, however, disrupted this pattern. New employment opportunities required new skills and families were no longer able to pass on the knowledge needed for success in the new environment. The demand for public education grew. On the one hand, the workers began to equate education with the opportunity to acquire employment, status and security. Simultaneously, industrialists promoted public education as a means of producing educated workers to ensure industrial efficiency and expansion (Fleming, 1974) As the industrial society increased in complexity, administrative techniques became increasingly formalized and organized. Education, which had once been left to the whim of parents or to chance, came under the control of the state. Education became not merely a right of the citizenry but an obligation of the society.

The major focus of educational equality during this era was on the equal "provision" of education. This concept indicates "a state in which each person would

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have an equal chance of finding their place in a hierarchy of inequality according to their own ambitions and abilities" (Phillips, 1979, p.84). This approach is based largely in Aristotle's philosophy of distributive justice and seems particularly suited to the North American competitive market society. Given equal opportunities or "starting points", individuals begin the race and achieve their goals on the basis of their own abilities and needs (Gowin, 1970). Geographic and social barriers to participation are removed and educational resources provided. Success or failure in the educational experience then rests with the individual.

This emphasis on educational equality as the "provision of opportunity" continued into the 1970's and was fostered by several factors. Education was idealized prior to World War II as the great equalizer--a panacea able to remedy society's inequities and problems. After World War II, education became a weapon in the cold war battle for material and technological supremacy against the Soviet Union. The demand increased for educated citizens with numerous technical and professional skills. During the 1960's, these concerns for efficiency in education were linked to economic concerns. Education was seen as a national investment in the creation of national economic growth (Bowman, 1966; Denison & Poulier, 1972).

This approach to education came under close, critical scrutiny in the 1970's. Intensive studies by social scientists (Coleman, 1968; Jencks, 1968; Rawls, 1971) proved that neither equality of access to wealth, power or positions nor the hoped-for economic improvement in society had occurred. The ensuing disillusionment with the achievements of the formal educational system created two phenomena. Of primary interest to adult educators was the increased attention which focussed on adult education as a possible means to achieve educational equality. With its potential to provide flexible and unique ways of dealing with problems, adult education was and continues to be seen as a second chance for individuals to gain access to the educational process. As well, it may provide additional alternatives to obtain the skills and credentials which lead to the prizes society awards to its successful members. In addition, in a rapidly changing society, there is a growing awareness that it is no longer possible to educate for life during a few years of compulsory schooling. Educators, reflecting society's concerns, are responding by refining and promoting lifelong and recurrent education concepts. Adult education is seen as a major instrument to establish those concepts.

The second consequence of the disillusionment in the 1970's was the shift in emphasis from educational equality as the equal "provision of opportunity" to the equality of "outcomes". This shift basically reflected the change from a concern for equity (fairness and impartiality) to one closer to a concern for a measurable equality (uniform in character, quality, degree, value, rank, etc.). There was an underlying vision of a society where wealth, power and position would be shared equally by all members of society. Political, civil, economic and social equality would be sought for all through the educational system. Education's mandate is to overcome inequalities resulting from differences in race, socio-economic factors and other aspects of the individuals' environments. Implicit in this perspective is that the responsibility to create achievement lies with the educational system, not the individual learner. It is this perspective which increasingly preoccupies educators today.

Desirable outcomes of education have been vaguely identified as "improved social status", "raised living standards", and "quality of life". Several authors have attempted to clarify these terms. Titmuss, for example, writes that living standards are high when a person "has a certain disposition of resources...with the help of which the individual can control and consciously command his/her life situation" (Rubenson, 1982, p.9). Farrell's measure of equality of outcomes is that individuals have " equal incomes, have jobs of roughly the same status and have equal access to the sources of political power" (Farrell, 1982, p.43). Levin suggests equality of educational outcomes would compensate "for differences in parental wealth, income, education, political power, social connections, power" (Levin, 1976, p.158).

It becomes clear, then, that when one discusses educational equality today, one is discussing primarily something that challenges the established relationships and orders within society. Educational equality seeks to redistribute resources and power. It brings into question values surrounding justice, fairness and rights and deals with issues of power and authority that have political implications. The structure of society at both a macro and micro (i.e.: individual or group) level is challenged to change. Educational equality is a dynamic process which seeks to alter the fundamental structures, beliefs or values of the existing social, economic and political order. It is, in fact, a form of social change. The exploration of the nature of social change which follows will create a clearer understanding of the nature of educational equality.

Educational equality as a form of social change

Social change is a phenomenon which Paulston (1976, 1977) has classified into a tidy conceptual framework and related to education. His work reflects social change theorists' views of change as either an equilibrium or conflict situation. In the equilibrium paradigm, change is viewed as smooth and cumulative. The equilibrium theories are concerned with a society that maintains its balance through retaining harmonious relationships among its parts. Within the equilibrium paradigm, the structural-functionist sub-division has been the dominant theory of social change in North America. It reflects the period of the 1960's when it came to prominence, emphasizing the importance of maintaining an efficient, stable and durable society. Structural-functionist theorists focus on the "homeostatic or balancing mechanisms by which societies maintain a uniform state" (Paulston, 1976, p.13). They advance the ideas of consensus exchanges between systems so that balance and maintenance of the established pattern results, and perceive educational systems as "passively related to social change "serving essentially conservative functions" and "tending to reinforce the status quo" (Paulston, 1977, p.381). They believe the educational system prepares competent members for a modern, rational, efficient and meritocratic society (Collins, 1971).

The conflict paradigm, in contrast, views change and instability as "constant and unavoidable characteristics of all social organisms and relations" (Paulston, 1976, p.24). "Crucial to any theory of social conflict is the distribution of power and authority" (Neelsen, 1975, p.138). While structural-functionist theorists regard the distribution of power and authority as random occurrences and basically unplanned, conflict theorists believe the dominant groups will try to retain their exclusiveness and superior status. The most prominent theories within this paradigm are the Marxist and neo-Marxist ones. They view problems of unequal opportunity as the result of structures established and retained by those in power. Educational systems, then, are not proposed as either the major problem or problem-solvers--rather the solutions are seen to lie outside the system, within the entire faulty social situation. Whereas the structural-functionist theorists look to education to improve the efficiency of the larger social system, Marxists and neo-Marxists view the educational system as primarily an instrument of the state which maintains and supports the capitalistic hegemony. Within the Marxian theory, educational systems only change or create changes in response to the social group in power.

These two paradigms, the equilibrium and conflict, form the conceptual framework within which social change and, because of its similar nature, educational equality occur. Implicit within these two paradigms is the major obstacle to change--the static nature of the social structures and relationships. This obstacle is viewed in different ways from the two social change perspectives. The following discussion serves to illustrate this point.

A society's ideological belief structures, for example, may oppose the introduction of social changes. In Canada, the well-established ideological belief of a preference for a multicultural society can be explained from a conflict perspective as an attempt by English-Canadians to maintain the present structures in which they fill the elite positions. Porter (1955, 1965) argues eloquently that not merely do the elite distrust change, but that they exaggerate the importance of cultural pluralism in order to discourage minority groups from desiring improved (that is, English-Canadian) life chances. Equilibrium theorists, on the other hand, declare that Canada's ideological structures are necessary and efficient means of maintaining a balanced social system. They assume there is a high degree of acceptance of the beliefs across all the social systems; that there is a fundamental heritage common to the entire society. Conflict theorists would counter with the argument that the equilibrium in a society is negotiated among a small, powerful elite to protect their vested interests. The hierarchies they establish are orderly and mechanical systems, designed to be more easily changed from the top down.

Theorists from both the conflict and equilibrium perspectives agree that the interdependence and coherence among the subsystems within the larger social structures prohibit social change. The equilibrium theorists though, see the parts as tending toward balance while conflict theorists view the units as being in constant opposition.

It is clear that the two major theories of social change view the major obstacle to change as the static nature of the social structures and relationships. Underlying that perception is the belief that change occurs through altering the larger social structures and relationships.

The role of adult education

If adult education is to play a role in achieving equality, then, it must broaden its focus beyond merely establishing new programs or instituting reforms. Larger changes to the social relationships and structures must be attempted.

Considerable literature exists to support the view that any attempt to transform society through merely educational action or reform "vastly overestimates the role of education, ascribing to it an importance in the shaping of society it simply does not possess" (Rahnema, 1978, p.63). The educational system, after all, contributes to the formation of humans "in terms consistent with society's economic, social and political structures" (Carnoy, 1975, p.394). Attempts, then, to correct injustices by simply reforming the educational system will fail since that system is merely a reflection of the economic and social structures for which it prepares the learner (Carnoy, 1975). Furthermore, if that system does not sustain and support the movement toward equality, then educational reform at best "will remain a marginal activity in constant danger of erosion or perverse distortion" (Rahnema, 1978, p.63). Carnoy argues that if changes in the educational system "are not extended to structural reforms in the development pattern (relations in production and dominant class hegemony) they will have little or no impact on the society as a whole" (1981, p.161). Wiebe lyrically describes the "strange role the rhetoric of reform" has set for the public education system as "attainable only through a revolution in social relationships" (1960, p.165).

If adult education is to attempt changes in social structures and relationships in order to bring about educational equality, it must make choices. It must determine which of political, social, economic or cultural needs in society will be given top priority. Many authors make a strong argument for the re-allocation of economic resources as a vital first step to achieving an equitable society. Coady (1945), for instance, writes that life for people in organized society is:

> nothing more than the realization of human possibilities. There are five classes of these possibilities: the physical, economic, social, cultural and spiritual....It does not take much thought to realize that among these possibilities the economic, while not the highest in the order of dignity, is basic to all the others. Abject poverty prevents the realization of the other great objects of life. Consequently, no educator who is intent upon giving the good and abundant life to a people can dodge the economic issue. (p.11)

Bowles and Carnoy are also among those who focus on economic needs. Bowles relates equality to economic restructuring: "as long as jobs are structured so some have power over many and others have power over none, as long as the social division of labor persists, educational inequalities will be built into the United States' society" (Bowles, 1972, p.49).

Carnoy argues for the dismantling of the capitalistic system of production, "in order to have a society that places human needs before the accumulation of capital and the production of goods as ends in themselves" (1957, p.?96). He emphasizes changing the power relationships in systems of production. He believes that through controlling production and distribution of goods the powerless will gain the ability to redistribute power and to alter economic inequalities.

The argument has been made here that if adult education is to help to overcome inequalities in our society, it should begin by focussing on the re-allocation of economic resources. Although a full investigation of the pragmatic implications of this stance is beyond the scope of this paper, several illustrations may be of interest. Adult education could, for example, work with labour unions to strengthen and increase their memberships so they would better control the establishment of wages and conditions for the employees. This in turn, would decrease the concentration of power and wealth among the power elite. Similarly, adult education could assist collective and co-operative movements to educate, strengthen and increase their memberships. Indeed, historically, this is a role adult education has frequently played (e.g., Antigonish movement, women's movement, peace movement).

There are several factors to be considered if adult education is to play a role in bringing about educational equality through altering economic structures and relationships. The interdependence of the educational subsystem and the larger social structures ensure that these changes can only be implemented in the context of larger considerations. Ideally, adult education would plan its actions co-operatively with full attention to the wider objectives of the larger social system. National plans of action, integrated and co-ordinated with decentralized decision-making would replace fragmented schemes of adult education. Adult education would consider the diverse interests, values, needs and priorities of individuals, groups, organizations and communities in order to establish the priorities and processes of change. By ensuring grassroots' participation, the suitability and acceptance of change strategies would be best ensured (Duke, 1980). Indeed, the goal of equality has become increasingly defined as participation in the democratic process (participatory equality). Participation is both a goal and an on-going process that does not occur automatically. Adult education must plan strategies that include and encourage participation so that individual and collective growth and improvement result.

Conclusion

Education's historical involvement with inequality stretches interminably into the past. It would be unrealistic for adult education to hope to achieve equality within a limited time frame. It is important for adult education to recognize that equality is an on-going process rather than an end. The meaning of the term will continue to be created in the context of the times and different demands for different kinds of equality will continue to develop. Such a fluctuating concept creates a relationship between adult education and equality that is inevitably fraught with frustration. To explore the dimensions of educational equality will be a demanding and difficult undertaking. Adult education will be required to act with an awareness, sensitivity and wisdom that is as yet untested. The task is not an easy one--the rewards, however, tantalize and tease the imagination with the promise of an improved social structure for the future.

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER VISIBLE LEARNING

Adult Education and the Question of Participation

AUTHOR Sean Courtney

The evolution of adult education since the turn of the century may be partly read in the pages of participation research. Who has participated in organized forms of learning down through the years, be it within or without the designated institutions, tells the story of adult education as a cultural practice. What has been written--presumed, theorized, and tested-about their motives tells the story of adult education as a discipline and field of knowledge. That story is the subject of the present study.

Several themes are investigated, among them: the eclipse of the sociological tradition in the 1960s and the ascendancy of psychology; the recurring but so far unexplained correlation between earlier schooling and later educational participation; the inconsistency of national estimates of participation reflecting undertainty as to the boundaries of the field; and the validity and relevance of motivational orientation research.

Conclusions are drawn with a view to returning to critical dialogue the neglected sociological tradition and to arguing the necessity of viewing adult education as a social practice at the confluence of major streams of thought and events.

VISIBLE LEARNING
Adult Education and the Question of Participation

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By the 1970s, though the signs were evident a decade earlier, American adult education had shifted from a loose set of themes and practices, held together by a social mission and penetrated by a number of research traditions, to a discipline increasingly identified with a single tradition and the erosion of that mission. Adult education had ceased to be the quasi-political arena where the fulfillment of democracy and the dream of social justice were played out and had become synonymous with psychology, professionalism, and the themes of personal growth and individual striving.

Nowhere are the lines of this evolution more evident than in the study of what some would consider to be the central preoccupation of adult education as an applied science: the voluntary nature of learning. Through the study of participation research--who gets involved with education as adults and why--we are able to discern in what ways modern adult education has changed its identity since emerging as a liberal social practice in the middle and late 1920s. The transformation is not yet complete nor indeed has it been adequately documented. But we may begin to trace this development piecemeal by examining how the question of participation has changed from one located in the nexus of social action to one bound only by the parameters of the individual persona. This history is the focus of the present study.

Despite recent opinions to the contrary, participation is not a new problem for educational researchers. It has been a topic of concern since the early days of empirical social science. Between the late 1920s and the end of the 1950s, three research traditions can be discerned in literature on the subject: A Survey Strain, Sociological Strain, and Psychological Strain.

Theoretical study of participation up until the mid-1960s was conducted, with some exceptions, from a sociological perspective. To a degree it was interdisciplinary, when sociology and psychology came together as in the work of Havighurst. Nevertheless, the influence of the new social science was strong and the extent to which it had penetrated into the literature of adult education is evidenced in the extensive and overlapping bibliographies of Newberry in Brunner (1959), and Knox and Videbeck (1963).

By the late 1960s, the Sociological Strain had ceased to exert any noticeable influence on the course of participation research or adult education, for that matter. Such was the ascendancy of the Psychological Strain that it must have appeared to many that there was no theoretical alternative in the study of participation than the analysis of individual motives. A theory of motivation had replaced a theory of society.

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This study, which is based on an examination of the available participation literature within adult education as well as selected literature from the fields of sociology and psychology, examines the contribution made by each of these separate research traditions to our understanding of this most enduring phenomenon.

Interdisciplinary Origins and the Analysis of Participation

We can date the first systematic studies of participation to the 1920s, based on a report by Jacques Ozanne to the American Association for Adult Education (A.A.A.E.), in 1934. Surveys of populations in places like Buffalo by Marsh in 1926 and Brooklyn by Lorimer in 1929 reflect the early desire by the new Councils on Adult Education to gather information about participants and the institutions involved in education provision. By the 1940s and early 1950s, studies in the Survey Strain were commonplace. Brunner (1959) depicted a subject matter being rigorously and imaginatively pursued.

These surveys, many commissioned by the A.A.A.E., reflected the enormous outpouring of work in the new field of scientific sociology at this time. (See Odum, 1951). Influenced by the severe impact of immigration, the traces of Social Darwinism, and the apparent success of Spencer, Comte, and Durkheim in the formulation of a profoundly theoretical science, a new breed of professional was focusing attention on the laws which bound people together, the institutions they creat- to augment solidarity, and the conflicts they engendered in their struggle for survival and political supremacy.

"Social participation", in particular, was a popular topic among researchers of the Sociological Strain who, armed with new methodologies, flung themselves into the study of social life, e.g. trade unions, professional associations, religious groups, sports and athletic clubs, the Y.M.C.A. and the Boy Scouts. Two of their most significant findings at this time were also the findings of adult education surveys, e.g. Lorimer (1931), Kaplan (1943): forms of participation were interrelated and reflected the hierarchical structure of the community. Those who partook of the more organized forms of cultural life were an overlapping population. Indeed, as Kaplan was to note, adult education itself served an overlapping clientele. Those who turned up in some forms of adult education could also be found in others. In a later study, London (1963) spoke of this as a "general participation syndrome."

Social participation was also bound up with socio-economic status. It was highest among power and cultural elites; the laboring classes tended to avoid formal associations when seeking opportunities for learning and leisure; while the poorer and least well-off classes tended to shun even these less structured modes, effectively cutting themselves off from any source of organization and power.

While the Sociological Strain viewed educational participation within the broader perspective of community involvement, the Psychological Strain saw it as a less interesting aspect of the motivation to learn. (Compare Kirchner's with Newberry's chapter in Brunner.) Despite the early influence of psychology on adult education, especially in the wake of Edward Thorndike's Adult Learning (he was president of the A.A.A.E. for the period 1934-35), participation was treated deductively within the psychological paradigm, its causes sought in what was then known or thought to be known about the nature of learning and motivation. With notable exceptions, e.g. Love (1953), it was rarely examined as an empirical phenomenon in its own right.

In 1961, Cyril Houle, then a professor of education at the University of Chicago, published The Inquiring Mind, a short, highly readable analysis of attitudes towards continuing education. Houle's thrust was both empirical as well as psychological. He criticized the Survey and by implication, the Sociological

Strains and pinpointed their principal limitation succinctly: they focus on what men and women do and not on what they think about what they do or why they do it. The earliers tradition had been negligent in the analysis of motive. Houle's study would change that.

Later researchers took up Houle's task enthusiastically. By the late 1960s and early 1970s, researchers had ceased to be interested in participation defineed as the tendencies of large groups and classes replacing it with participation defined as the decisions of individual men and women and the motives behind those decisions. The concept of participation was now shorn of its sociological underpinnings and in its place there arose a concern for the psychology of individual motivation.

What contributions have these various traditions made to our understanding of why people become "volunteers for learning," and, more importantly, how do they reflect on the evolution of adult education as a field of knowledge and practice?

Participation and Survey Research

At the local level studies like Lorimer (1931), McGrath (1938), and London (1963) discovered what later national survey were to confirm. Postsecondary education in the United States remains the domain of white, middle-class, educated Americans concerned with enhancing professional and cultural status rather than compensating for earlier educational disadvantage. Most importantly of all, perhaps, the Survey Strain discovered and rediscovered, but has never really explained, the correlation of earlier schooling with later educational involvement. With certain category exceptions, those who avail themselves of adult education continue to be those who have already benefitted from the larger system of schooling. Those for whom adult education as a social mission is intended--illiterates, the poor, and the long-term unemployed--constitute but a tiny portion of the total participating population.

Despite its occurrence as one of the most enduring findings of the Survey Strain, the correlation of schooling and adult education has often become lost in discussions of who exactly is involved in organized forms of learning. Nowhere is this confusion more evident than at the national level where government statistics contrast with the findings of independent surveys. Among the latter, the work of Johnstone and Rivera with the National Opinion Research Center in Chicago remains the landmark study. And, astonishing though it may seem, it appears yet to be the only survey of non-federal origin to have provided the field with an adequate sense of its boundaries. The recent surveys of Carp, Peterson, and Roelfs (1974)--intended to update Volunteers for Learning--and Aslanian and Brickell (1980) differ too significantly from the former to permit genuine comparison.

Finally, the Survey, as an instrument for exploring causality, came full circle in 1979 when it was revealed how little of the phenomenon of participation could be explained by demographic factors alone, even at their most statistically significant, e.g. age and formal education. (See Anderson & Darkenwald, 1979.) Among those most inclined to participate were many who did not, while among the least inclined were significant minorities who did. What was it that characterized the actions of those who chose educational involvement rather than ignore it? On this question, the Survey Strain was silent.

Psychology and Participation

There are essentially three categories of research within the Psychological Strain: Motivational Orientation studies which have followed in the Houle mold; Decision Models, inspired by the ideas of Lewin, which theorize participation within an environment of forces; and research based on concepts of the Adult Life

Cycle. The most developed of these is undoubtedly the factor analytic work prompted by interest in Houle's typology and associated mainly with the name of Roger Boshier. Much of the present study was given over to investigating the quality of this work.

Researchers such as Miller, Rubenson, Cross, and Cookson have elaborated models which depict participation as a contemporary rather than historical event governed by a chain or matrix of antecedent conditions. In contrast to the variables of the Survey Strain, the relationships elaborated by Decision theorists lie closer to the reality of participation. Unfortunately, with the exception of Cookson's work, these models have not been tested though they do have the advantage of reflecting the decision-making involved in an intuitively appealing manner. Similarly, while Life Cycle concepts have an obvious applicability to the study of participation it is surprising how little they have made an appearance in theoretical formulations.

By contrast, the past twenty years have seen relatively many dissertations given over to testing Houle's three-factor typology. In general, the effort has not been a success, more from confusion over the task at hand than from failed grapplings with an intractable subject. Motivational Orientation researchers have developed or used instruments designed to comprehend the entire domain of participation when previous research suggested that only a portion of the landscape might be realistically measured by questionnaires with psychometric properties. They have tended to confuse testing the reliability of their instruments with determining their validity. With the exception of Boshier (1973) and Ordos (1980), none has produced a theory of participation.

Sociology and Participation

The Sociological Strain approached the measurement of social life with an empirical zeal which accepted only as fact that which was directly observable. In this regard, it tended to neglect as a subject for theoretical study both the nature of the organization in which an individual sought involvement, and the ideas or beliefs he or she held about that organization. Beal (1956) was one of the first to point out the consequences of this blindspot. He condemned the tendency to focus on demographic factors much as the Survey Strain had done within adult education, factors which he dubbed "static" because they could not be changed. Instead he argued for the measurement of "dynamic" factors: the beliefs people held about a particular institution, their feelings of involvement with or responsibility towards it, and so forth. In particular, he argued that participation could not be fully comprehended independently of the institution towards which it was directed.

What sociology did not begin to do in earnest until the close of the 1950s was to examine the social and economic effects of education as an institution in its own right. Through the writings of the so-called Functionalists, education came to be seen as a mechanism for maintaining social order by dispensing society's rewards and privileges in a manner consistent with a rational concept of merit. In a true democracy, education was open to all. Children were educated equally according to ability and motivation; young men and women came to fill occupational and social roles according to ambition and qualification. Thus did education counter the advantages of birth and hereditary privilege.

This view did not remain unchallenged for long. According to writers like Bowles and Gintis in the U.S., Bernstein in Britain, and Bourdieu in France, education was but one more institution by which the dominant class in a society maintained its position of power. Under the guise of cultural transmission--the passing on of all that was "best" in society--schools articulated a rhetoric based on equality of opportunity, while it reproduced an unchallenged code of values within a system where power rarely changed hands.

While there is much to criticize in this view--apart from its strong contrast to the social optimism with which Americans are more at home--"revisionist" and conflict theories of education--the new Sociological Strain--hold major implications for the study of participation in adult education. First, they open the door to a more theoretically rich accounting of the connection between earlier schooling and later participation. Second, they offer a medium for understanding the motivation to participate less as a function of isolated motives than as a reflection of societal expectations embedded within a history of institutional practices and class conflict. Third, and for the first time, they permit us to view adult education as a social practice dictated by social and economic forces it appears more eager to obey than to analyze.

Conclusions

If this interpretation of the history of participation research is correct, it raises questions of interpretation regarding the evolution of adult education over the last half-century. There is an opinion abroad today that it is only within the past twenty or so years that participation has been taken seriously as a subject of scientific theory. Implied here is the idea that the transformation of adult education into a discipline and profession has been reflected in ever more sophisticated theory and research. Thus is conveyed an impression of progressive genetic evolution: a movement from the simple to the complex.

On the contrary, the history of participation research displays less an epigenetic evolution from cruder to more complex forms than a series of discontinuities wherein themes of concern to an earlier generation are replaced somewhat abruptly by other concerns, as these reflect the field's politics and the changing philosophy of its practitioners. The picture we ought to paint is not one of slow but sure expansion, hymn to the myth of progress, but the more realistic portrait of purpose dictated by forces other than some inherent logic of the field we call adult education. If participation is seen today principally as a phenomenon of strict psychological hue this may have less to do with its appropriateness as a subject for psychology than with the field's perception that between the twin pillars of motivation and learning lies its true claim to the status of a unique profession.

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF ADULT LEARNING PRINCIPLES FROM A SELF-DIRECTED LEARNER'S PERSPECTIVE.

AUTHORS CLAUDIA DANIS AND NICOLE TREMBLAY

A critical analysis of adult learning principles regarding the nature of learning, the learning process, the learning environment and the adult learner is carried out through a comparison of learning principles found in the literature with those identified in self-taught adults' learning experiences. The method implies a three-phase strategy: a thematic analysis of learning principles explicitly suggested in the literature by adult education experts; a content analysis of 10 successful, self-taught adults' learning experiences; a comparative analysis of both sources. Findings are discussed with regard to the priority given to certain principles by both experts and learners, with regard to differences in emphasis and in the implementation of certain other principles, with regard to the disagreements and the new principles which have been identified. Implications for practice and implications for research are discussed.

CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF ADULT LEARNING PRINCIPLES FROM A SELF-DIRECTED LEARNER'S PERSPECTIVE.

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PURPOSE

Principles regarding adult learning have been proliferating in the adult education field of research and practice. These principles reflect the underlying explicit or implicit assumptions which are prevailing (Brundage & Mackeracher, 1980) in the current educational, psychological and sociological theories (Zemke & Zemke, 1981). Moreover, these same principles originate from two distinct approaches: one being the philosophical, eclectic, problem-centered approach of adult education practitioners (Lindeman, Knowles, Kidd), the other being the empirical, experimental approach of researchers (Thorndike, Tough, Messick, Even) (Parsons & Johnson, 1978). The influence of the prevailing theories brings about the emphasizing of principles which correspond to these theories' specific perspectives while the influence of the adult education practitioners' approach brings about the emphasizing of adult learning principles which are directly related, in most cases, to formal, institutional teaching. In order to identify the prevailing learning principles from an adult learner's perspective, in a context as free as possible from the biases of both the current theories and the formal educational interpretations, the present research focuses on self-directed learning (autodidactism).

The purpose of the study is to carry out a critical review of the generally current adult learning principles, through a comparison of the learning principles suggested by experts in the literature with those suggested by successful self-taught learners in the description of their own learning experiences. It is assumed that questioning pre-established principles in the light of self-taught adults' assertions regarding their own learning experiences may bring about interesting findings with respect to the priority given to certain principles by both experts and learners, the differences in emphasis and in the implementation of certain other principles, the disagreements and the new principles which may arise.

METHODOLOGY

The 10 subjects of the study met the following criteria (Brookfield, 1982): they had been engaged in long-term self-directed learning projects (at least four years); were socially recognized as experts in their field of learning; had less than 10 years of schooling; the knowledge and skills in their field of learning had not been acquired in school nor at work.

The method implies a three-phase strategy. In the first phase, an exhaustive review of the literature was carried out in order to identify the learning principles which have been explicitly suggested in the literature by adult education experts. Principles related to teaching and to cognitive aspects were not retained. A thematic analysis followed and thus was elaborated a framework comprising four dimensions: 1) the nature of learning, 2) the learning process, 3) the learning environment, and 4) the adult learner.

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In the second phase, a content analysis of the self-taught adults' learning experiences was carried out. Five steps were followed: identifying the facts and events of each learning experience; comparing the identified facts/events with similar facts/events of the other learning experiences; formulating a preliminary hypothesis regarding each prevailing event or sequence of events; identifying the preliminary hypotheses which were present in all 10 learning experiences (100% consensus) and formulating the retained hypotheses as principles.

In the third phase, a comparative analysis of the principles suggested by the subjects with those suggested by the authors was conducted. A critical review of the identified principles followed.

FINDINGS

Nature of learning

The first dimension deals with two aspects: learning is an internal process and a developmental process. The most outstanding finding suggested by the subjects regarding learning as an internal process is the following principle: "the self-taught adults are able to identify, by themselves, the personal qualities or traits which characterize them as learners and which facilitate their learning". Regarding learning as a developmental process, the most outstanding finding is related to the increasing self-awareness acquired during the learning process and may be stated as the following principle: "the self-taught adults transcend their own learning process and set forth rules and principles regarding their own learning process or regarding learnin in general (meta-learning)".

Learning Process

The second dimension deals with three aspects: the learning process is cyclical, its central dynamic is the adult's experience and it implies decision-making. The most outstanding finding regarding learning as a cyclical process reveals that, even though there are effectively qualitatively different sequences in the subjects' learning process, these sequences are not unidirectional nor cyclical since there seems to be no recurrence of the same events or elements in a consistent order. The subjects' process does not even seem to correspond to the problem-solving process which is also, as suggested in the literature, a linear representation of learning/action sequences. A principle may be stated, in disagreement with the authors' point of view: "the self-taught adults proceed in a heuristic manner within a learning approach which they organize around intentions, redefine and specify without following any predetermined patterns". Another notion opposing the authors' linear representation of the learning process is the emphasis on the impact of random events upon the entire learning process. Thus, another principle may be stated: "the self-taught adults take advantage of any opportunity that random events may offer them in order to learn".

With respect to experience being the central dynamic of the learning process, the findings corroborate the authors' principles, but some specifications may be brought about: "all self-taught adults' learning approaches consist of a time for action and of a time for reflection, both occurring simultaneously or alternately".

The decision-making implied in the learning process was analyzed, taking into account the management of the learning process, the needs assessment, the learning content, the self-teaching methods, and the pace of the learning process. The authors' principle regarding management of the learning projects appears to be but an operational consequence of the principle defining the learning process as being cyclical. The subjects do not describe their learning process in terms of management nor do they seem to follow linear, predetermined steps of planning and evaluation. Regarding the needs assessment, the subjects do not describe their progress in terms of specific objectives. Needs seem to be detected by these self-taught adults as they proceed with their learning/action. The following principle may be stated: "the self-taught adults are able to specify their learning goals only once they have mastered certain knowledge and skills". Regarding the learning contents, some findings are in agreement with the corresponding principles suggested by the authors, but also provide new insights: "the more knowledge or skills the self-taught adults have acquired, the more they will seek assistance from specialists in their field of learning"; "self-taught adults have a tendency to narrow down their learning content to specialized aspects of their field of learning"; "the more self-taught adults specialize in their field of learning, the more their interest for their learning content increases". With respect to self-directed learning contents as such, the large number of years and the amount of energy dedicated to the same field of learning by each subject of the present study illustrates the exactness of the principle stating that the self-directed learners tend to choose one particular field. However, a new principle may be introduced: "the self-taught adults, while specializing in their field, open out to related fields of learning or transfer their acquired knowledge/skills to related fields of learning". Regarding the self-teaching methods and the pace of the learning process, self-taught adult learners do use a variety of settings, methods and resources in order to learn and emphasize the importance of controlling the pace of their own learning process.

Learning Environment

The third dimension deals with the influence of the environment on adult learning and the use of learning media. Regarding the influence of the environment, the subjects of the present research emphasize the two-sided transactions they engage in with their immediate environment rather than the one-sided support they could receive from that environment. Regarding the use of learning media, findings from the subjects' learning experiences are in agreement with the authors' principle stating that the adults use a variety of media. However, it must be specified that "the use of books or consultations with experts only occur once the self-taught adults have familiarized themselves, in various ways, with their field of learning". One of the most outstanding findings regarding the use of human resources can be formulated as the following principle: "the self-taught adults build up networks of resources which evolve in terms of the level of expertise the learners have acquired in their field of learning".

Adult Learner

The fourth dimension deals with the self-directedness, motivation and orientation to learning of the self-taught adult learner. The notion of self-directedness emphasized by the authors characterize the subjects of the present study. However, the subjects do not bring out, as the authors do, the need of the adult learner to be seen by the others as being a self-directed individual. A plausible explanation for this could be the fact that they are not learning in a formal setting where their right to be self-directed has to be granted by external educational agents. The self-taught adults emphasize rather their need to be seen as competent in their field of learning. Regarding the notion of locus of control, the analysis of the subjects' learning experiences brings out the following principle: "throughout their learning process, the self-taught adults assume the monitoring of their own learning, even when consulting an external agent or when participating in a formal educational activity".

With respect to motivation, the subjects seem to emphasize different aspects or notions from those suggested by the authors. While the latter speak of positive growth as being one of the main motives for learning, the subjects specify that "motivation arises from curiosity, interest or challenge". Another principle arises: "the self-taught adults' motivation increases as their competence is recognized and as they are invited to transmit their knowledge or skills to others". The subjects equally emphasize much more than the authors do, the importance of pleasure linked to learning as such. The assumed link between learning and developmental tasks or roles is not at all emphasized by the subjects of the present study. This link rather seems to be but one factor among many others, and is brought out only by a minority of respondents. In fact, this relationship even sometimes seems to be reversed, the adults' learning projects becoming a motivation to choose particular developmental tasks or social roles.

Regarding the orientation to learning, three main notions stand out: immediacy of application, efficiency and the pragmatic application of adult learning. Self-taught adults do not limit themselves to learnings that are to be applied in an immediate future. Indeed, most of them also seize opportunities to acquire knowledge or skills that may eventually be useful in the long term. Furthermore, they seem to be learning-centered, subject-centered rather than being performance-centered as it has been assumed by the authors. The self-taught adults do effectively have a pragmatic approach to learning in the sense that what is learned must be applicable to action. But this practical application of knowledge and skills in their field of learning should not be confounded with a merely utilitarian approach in which only knowledge or skills related to immediate real-life tasks or problems would be acquired by the adult learners.

IMPLICATIONS

Implications for practice

Many implications for practice in a formal, institutional setting have been extrapolated from the findings of the present research. These extrapolations, of course, remain to be validated.

Some of the most useful implications for the formal educators are the following:

. The principle "self-taught adults are able to specify their learning goals only once they have mastered certain knowledge or skills" implies that the educators should not ask the adult learners to assess their own needs, to set their own objectives,to plan their own learning process and to evaluate their learnings until these learners have had time to familiarize themselves with the basic aspects of their field of learning. This contradicts some current practices which, for example, make a precocious use of pre-established self-directed learning contracts.

. The principle "self-taught adults' learning approaches consist of a time for action and of a time for reflection, both occurring simultaneously or alternately" implies that educators, in their planning of an educational activity, should provide periods which are especially devoted to some kind of reflective activity that alternate with periods of action. Moreover, reflection should also be part of the periods of action. This can mostly be achieved through an adequate choice and use of specific methods.

. The principle "self-taught adults proceed in a heuristic manner within a learning approach which they organize around intentions, redefine and specify without following any predetermined patterns" presupposes that the learners have already acquired a high degree of autonomy and that they have the opportunity to actualize it. Even if this situation is less likely to occur in a formal setting, it nevertheless implies, on the part of the educators, flexibility, openness to change and respect for the adults' own learning approaches.

. The principle "self-taught adults build up networks of resources which evolve in terms of the level of expertise they acquire in their field of learning" implies that the educators would facilitate learning by inciting the adult learners to consult the many resources which are available in their classroom, in their educational institution (peers, teachers, other professionals) and in their social environment. Educators could even incite the learners to build their own learning networks.

. The learning process, given the fact that it is developmental in nature, brings about a change in the adult learners towards increased self-direction and self-awareness (Brundage & Mackeracher, 1980). The principle "self-taught adults transcend their own learning process and set forth rules and principles regarding their own learning process or regarding learning in general" implies that the educators should be conscious of the importance of self-awareness which appears to be an inherent part of the learning how to learn process of the adult.

Implications for research

Any discipline is characterized by a particular set of scientific and action principles (Fox, 1981) which serve as the basis for both its theory building and practice. The need to develop and verify principles which would be characteristic of the adult education field of theory and practice seems evident. The findings reveal that too few principles have been formulated from an adult learning/adult learner perspective. Adult education researchers will have to question the extrapolations from other disciplines and from the various theories they have taken for granted until now. They will have to question, for example, the excessive emphasis put on principles regarding motivation and developmental stages which were derived from psychology. These adult education researchers will also have to refocus various principles suggested by teaching-centered practitioners and verify these principles, in particular settings, from an adult learning perspective.

The following specific researches, derived from the present critical review of adult learning principles, could be given priority: a) the creation and testing of adequate research methods which would allow a focusing on adult learning processes and experiences, b) a study of the adult's heuristic learning process (ongoing research: Danis & Tremblay, 1984-88), c) a study of the alternate or simultaneous action/reflection components of the autodidactic learning process, d) a study of the meta-learning phenomenon through which the "adults transcend their own learning process".

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER THE HISTORY OF CONTINUING EDUCATION FOR BLACK PEOPLE IN THE ROXBURY COMMUNITY 1900-1980

AUTHOR Carrie N. Dickens, Assistant Professor of Education

This study sought to examine the history of continuing education for black persons in the Roxbury community from 1900-1980. Through data collection, analysis of documents, and semi-structured interviews, an organizing principle was developed. The researcher identified five broad categories of continuing education activities in the Roxbury community as follows: 1) Career Education; 2) Community/Civic Education; 3) Cultural Education; 4) Family Development Education and; 5) Religious Education. These broad categories were examined within four segments of time. They were 1900-World War I, Post-World War I-II, 1946-1959 and 1960-1980. Analysis of the data revealed that there was growth in both the volume and range of continuing education activities for black persons throughout the eight decades of this study. It was also concluded that some of the conditions which continuing education sought to ameliorate were still present in 1980, and agencies were still working to handle these concerns. Finally, with the opening of Roxbury Community College, the educational base for the community was broadened to include credit offerings as well as important interaction with academic institutions outside the community.

A STUDY OF ADULT EDUCATION FOR BLACK PEOPLE IN ROXBURY MASSACHUSETTS 1900-1980

Carrie N. Dickens[1]

Introduction

Over the past eight decades continuing education has served as an affordable means of education for many persons as the population of this country has increased. For example, Knowles (1962), posits that "the total population increased in size by over one third from almost 106,000,000 in 1920 to over 178,000,000 in 1960" (p. 76). The twentieth century has been a period of growth both in citizenry and in the variety of educative activities for adults.

The terms continuing and adult education are broadly defined in this study as all forms of learning opportunities provided for adults (Godbey, 1978, p. 1). During the early twentieth century, it would seem appropriate to say, it must (a) give instruction; (b) instruct in the"how to do and to live" aspects (Wilkins, 1945, p. 402).

The educative activities reviewed in this study were those designed to meet the needs of the community. McMahon (1970) observed:

> Basic to any response to need on the part of an adult educator is the concept of the relationship between need and desire. Whatever that concept may be, it becomes the basis for the educator's efforts to design educational programs to meet economic or other needs. It becomes the basis for his notion about who really determines need; and it becomes the basis for his attitude toward felt and unfelt needs of his adult constituency (p. 9).

McMahon (1970) further adds that "adult educators have always stressed the meeting of needs as a cardinal principal of education, yet today demands for relevance are directed to adult educators as well as the rest of the educational establishment" (p. 1). Wayland (1956) counters, "to build a program of adult education on the needs of adults requires the information which indicates how to identify these needs and interests, and is the perenial problem faced by all directors of adult education" (p. 32).

It is of some value to distinguish between felt needs and real needs. Kramer (1960) distinguishes between these needs in the following manner:

> The real need is a desirable element or condition that is lacking in, and would improve a situation. Felt needs are

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> what people with problems recognize as the elements necessary to improve their situations. It should be emphasized that felt needs may also be real needs, but that often they are not. Felt needs may be derived from symptoms alone rather than from true problems (p. 11).

In keeping with the voluntary nature of participation, Miller (1967) indicates, "we must assume, therefore, that the adult's willingness to undertake the activity demonstrates some personal need" (p. 3).

The researcher recognizes that continuing education for persons in a community such as Roxbury encompassed such a large volume of activities, agencies, and organizations over an eight-decade period, until it would be impossible to explore them all in this historical analysis. Therefore, some agencies which have been in existence through a major portion of the period of this study have served as the primary focus of this study. These agencies are: 1) The Prince Hall Masonic Lodge; 2) Religious Institutions; 3) The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People; 4) The National Urban League; 5) and the United Negro Improvement Association.

Five broad categories of educative activities were identified in the Roxbury community over the eight decades of this study. They were: 1) Career Education; 2) Community/Civic Education; 3) Cultural Education; 4) Family Development Education; 5) and Religious Education.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the nature of adult-continuing education in Roxbury, Massachusetts from 1900-1980. Such an examination was needed in order to identify selected agencies, organizations and institutions that offered educative activities for adults in Roxbury, and to identify the categories of educative activities provided during these eight decades.

Methodology

This study was both historical and descriptive in nature. It was the purpose of this historical method to 1) identify facts regarding adult-continuing education in the Roxbury community, 2) and to synthesize these facts in a way that was sensitive to the differences that marked the successive eras of the past eight decades so that these facts would be a part of our current understanding. Good and Scates (1954) made an important point when they indicated that "history is ideally an integrated narrative of past events, representing a critical search for the whole truth, with a field of inquiry as broad as the human past and life itself.

The descriptive component of this study consisted of interviews both to add specifics regarding the continuing education activities of the agencies discussed in this study, and to give an overall picture for the period of this study as it regards the community in general. The interview method was used because "the rapport established with the subjects provides for a cooperative atmosphere in which truthful information can be obtained" (Ary, Jacobs and Razoviek, 1979, p. 174).

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Conclusions

Five broad categories of educational activities were revealed in the Roxbury community from 1900-1980. Career Education was the first category. Career Education was extremely important to the improvement of the occupational status of blacks during the early and latter part of the twentieth century. Thernstrom (1973) posits that "there was virtually no improvement in the occupational position of black men in Boston between the late nineteenth century and beginning of World War II" (p. 194). The lack of adequate occupational status created economic inequality. Pleck (1979) indicated:

> Having failed to locate any substantial non-racial barrier, it seems clear that one overriding disadvantage blacks faced was the deeply rooted racial prejudice of their fellow Bostonians (p. 128).

The second broad category of educative activities was Community/Civic Education. Hallenbeck (1962) describes six elements that are essential to a community. He includes people, place, common concerns, organization, morale and government. Hallenbeck further states:

> The importance of the community for adult education has four phases....First, a community generates the needs, interests, and motivations for the education of its adults. Second, a community depends upon adult education for certain essential processes in its corporate life. Third, a community with its wide variety of institutions, with their different specific purposes, and their manifold resources, makes a broad adult education program comprehensible, feasible, and possible. Fourth, a community is an ever present laboratory, useful for many kinds of learning experiences in adult education (p. 1).

Although the community of Roxbury was caught up in the tragedies of World War I and the Great Depression, another fire burned within the community. Issues of a civic nature involving civil and human rights fanned the flames of trouble for years.

The third broad category was Cultural Education. Cultural educational activities during the early part of the century in the Roxbury community were an outgrowth of church activities to a large extent. The religious institutions served as a meeting place to hold forums, club activities, concerts, literary activities, plays, bandquets, etc. Kempfer (1955) posits that the hunger for learning arises primarily from: 1) the demands of the changing culture; 2) the influence of war and; 3) the need for human association among other reasons.

The fourth broad category of educative activities was Family Development Education. Brown (1948) explains that "education for family living is that branch of adult education which deals specifically with the values, principles and practices of family life" (p. 83). Family Development Education is both an old and new term. It is old in the sense that it is a part of the heritage of the community and its institutions to be concerned about the family as a unit, or the individual members of the family.

The final broad category of educative activities in the Roxbury community was Religious Education. The core of the religious education activities from a continuing-adult education perspective, was the Sunday School Class for adults and the church services.

These broad categories were examined within four segments of time. They were: 1) 1900 - World War I -- a period when black people were beginning to move into the Roxbury community; 2) Post World War I - World War II -- a period when the migration of lower income blacks from the southern part of the United States and the Great Depression created additional needs for continuing education in the Roxbury community; 3) 1946 - 1959 -- a period which marked the continued rise of the black population, thereby placing considerable demands on religious institutions in the community in terms of volume and range of educative activities; and 3) 1960 - 1980 -- a period of social upheaval, and a period when the population characteristics of Roxbury changed from predominantly white to predominantly non-white.

Implications

This study has added information which will be helpful to educators and practitioners. It provides: 1) a historical basis for planning new efforts; 2) an experiential base from which to do programming; 3) and guidance for developing similar studies in other inner-city communities throughout this country and developing countries around the world.

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Differences Between Participants and Non-Participants in a Corrections Education Program

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Approximately seventy five percent of the men incarcerated in Ohio prisons have not completed secondary school. In addition, they are more likely to be unemployed than the general population and possess low-level skills for employment. Why, then do not more of them enroll in educational programs available to them while they are in prison? It would seem reasonable to expect them to use their incarcerated time to improve their lot and leave the institution with better educational preparation than they had on entrance.

Love (1953) found the motives prompting adults to enroll in college-level study were complex. Two factors more often present in those who enrolled were (1) an awareness that education could help in solving problems facing the adult and (2) a belief that happiness and success are related to education. Steiner (1974) cited unconscious forces within incarcerated individuals that keep them from doing positive things that might help change their lives for the better. Impressions from childhood gained from pressures of lifestyle and community attitudes and beliefs may influence such an adult to continue destructive behavior or fail to engage in productive and positive behavior. Parental influence (not being more successful or employable than the father) or ambivalent attitudes toward education and the educated may also deter an adult from continuing education. Lovell (1980) says that in addition to personality factors of the adult, attitudes of parents and community members toward education may be influential in determining whether an individual will participate in adult education. Lovell also suggests that "antipathy . . . for any educational undertaking which has its origins in schoolday experiences" may deter an adult from doing that which educated people might expect. Finally, Smith (1982) states, "They (the undereducated) may lack faith in education as a prime source of potential help with personal and community problem."

Three areas of questioning are reported here. They are: (1) attitudes toward education; (2) perceptions of incarcerated males about themselves and their environments as they were growing up; and (3) impressions of the educational program available to them in the institution.

Methodology

One hundred randomly selected men who had not completed high school were interviewed in a medium security correctional institution in Ohio. Half the men had decided to enroll in the educational program and half had decided not to enroll.

A Likert-type scale was used with interview items seeking attitudes and perceptions. Much of the significance of this research is based in the personal interviews the men gave. Hinck (1975) and McGlone (1984) investigated

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similar concerns with incarcerated males, but used data from institutional records, rather than from the men themselves. Recent relaxation of human subjects research regulations governing the accessibility of those whose freedom is curtailed made it possible to conduct the interviews on which this research is based.

The data were analyzed using the SPSS procedure. Pearson correlation coeffecients were used to determine the relationships between the dependent variable (participation) and the independent variables. Means of the groups gave descriptive comparisons. The .05 level of significance was stipulated.

Some of the items were constructed to obtain the men's perceptions of earlier periods in their lives. This method can cause some problems with the validity of information obtained. The possibility exists for the interviewees to recall earlier events or environments as different than they actually were. They may also need to recall things as being better than they really were for their own mental health. In any event, this research represents an effort to document incarcerated males' own best responses to questions about themselves and their lives during preceding developmental eras. It is interesting than in one instance in which a check was made on data provided by the men, only one respondent gave information that was different from that included in his folder. The item asked the number of previous sentences served in state or federal correctional institutions.

The interview schedule was developed by the faculty of the school at the institution and the researcher. The items were based on their hunches as to the nature of any possible differences between the participants and non-participants. The questionnaire was read to each man by the researcher while the interviewee read along silently. The interviewee then gave a response that was recorded on the form. The reason for reading the items was the uncertainty of the reading level of the men and to be as sure as possible each item was understood.

Findings

Demographic data. The mean age of the 100 men was 26 years. Differences between the two groups were not significant, but the non-participants were slightly older.

The mean number of children in the families of orientation of the participants was 6.14 and 6.58 for the non-participants. This difference is significant. This is interesting in view of the fact that the participants had more family members incarcerated even though their families were smaller.

Sixteen of the non-participants were first-born children and only 11 of the participants were. Data concerning birth order and number of children per family is clouded in that many families were combinations of various marriages and relationships of their parents.

Marital status did not significantly differentiate the two groups. They were as a total group, however, more likely to be unemployed at the time of incarceration than the general population. Twenty nine percent were unemployed at that time. Twenty five percent were self-employed and forty six percent were employed by others. Considering the number of men who were sentenced for burglary, breaking and entering and such acts, the meaning of 'employed' may have a dubious meaning for this research.

Only 18 percent of the men had served in the armed forces. This seems to be a rather low number, but it must be considered that they are a comparatively young group and none are high school graduates. Eighteen of the hundred men may be a high percentage, considering those two facts.

Attitudes toward education. How successful did they perceive they had been in elementary school? Nearly all had completed eighth grade. The mean for the total group on the five-point Likert type scale was 3.5 which indicated they perceived they were neither successful nor unsuccessful. Most responses tended to be in the center. They tended, however, toward the 'successful' end of the scale more than the 'unsuccessful'. There was only two tenths difference between the participants and non-participants with the non-participants perceiving themselves slightly more successful.

How supportive of the objectives of education were their families and community members perceived to be? The mean of 4.92 for the participants shows they recalled their families being very supportive of education as a positive influence. The other group had a mean of 4.68, indicating less inclination to recall such favorable attitudes. While most of the men of both groups selected the most favorable response, there were more non-participants who selected less favorable responses. The differences in the means are not statistically significant but the correlation is.

Community members were perceived as being less supportive than parents. The level of support reported by participants was 4.42 and 3.82 for non-participants. The difference is statistically significant.

The participants had completed a mean of 9.2 years of school while the non-participants had completed 9.3 years. Many of the men reported they had received social promotions and they were nearly unanimous in their disapproval of them. Only one man from each group approved the concept.

Do the men believe that being enrolled in the school program will be favorable when they appear before the parole board? Fifty eight percent of the total group replied in the affirmative. The non-participants were slightly more inclined to see enrollment as being a positive factor than participants by a 62 to 54 margin.

Does reading ability as measured by the Otis-Lennon test of reading ability differentiate the two groups? The mean score for participants was 5.47 and 5.43 for non-participants. The difference was not statistically significant.

Perceptions of selves and environments during adolescence. Do the inmates recall their homes of orientation as being happy or unhappy? The mean score for the participants was 4.2 and 4.0 for the nonparticipants. The difference is not significant. 'Four' indicates they perceived their homes as being 'Happy' rather then 'Very Happy' or 'Neither Happy nor Unhappy.' Whether the responses given by the men are honest or realistic is not discernible, but it is noteworthy that they did not give responses at the extreme ends of the scale. Again, they may wish to remember their homes as happier than they were or it is possible that they really were happy places.The important point here is the perception the men have at this distance from the experience.

Were work and money available in the homes of these men? What relationship exists between their perceptions of poverty or affluence in their homes of orientation and participation? The mean score for the participants was 3.64 and 3.[illegible]6 for the non-participants showing the non-participants were slightly more inclined to recall their families as being out of money, but not significantly so. Both groups recalled being 'seldom' or 'sometimes' out of money but not 'often' or 'always.' The families of both groups were perceived as being 'seldom' out of work. It is interesting to note that work seemed to be more freely available in these homes than money.

Were these men easily-led youths, strongly influenced by others in their behavior? Participants and non-participants indicated they 'seldom' relied on others to help them decide their actions when they were growing up. The mean scores were at midpoint on the five-point Likert type scale. This could mean that they were neither strongly independent nor strongly dependent. It may also be a reflection of their ability to sense the undesirability of either response extreme and therefore safely tended to give more neutral responses. While the differences between the two groups were not significant, there was a slight inclination for non-participants to recall themselves as being more independent than the participants. Dependence-independence as an adult may also be indicated by responses to the item that asked the likelihood a man would enroll in the school if it also meant he would have to move from an area in the institution where his friends reside. The mean scores for this item show the participants would 'enroll with some reservation' (3.86) while non-participants indicated moving away from friends 'would not make any difference' (3.3). The mode for the participants was 'gladly enroll' (5) and the mode for the non-participants was 'would not make any difference' (3). The differences between the two groups are statistically significant.

To what extent do these men come from families that represent or tolerate criminal behavior? While family members could not be expected to be pleased to have a family member incarcerated even if he were guilty, the men were asked the degree to which they perceived their family members disliked the fact of their incarceration. It was hypothesized that if a strong proclivity toward criminal activity existed, the sentence could be viewed as a cost of 'doing business.' It is interesting to discover that a highly significant correlation exists between the responses to this item and the fact of enrollment in the prison school. The participants perceived their families disfavoring incarceration much more strongly than those of the non-participants. While the mode 'dislike the idea (of incarceration) very much' (5) was the same for both groups, the non-participants were more likely to give responses indicating a perception of less dislike of incarceration by their families.

Another measure of criminality could be the number of immediate family members who had been or were now incarcerated in state or federal penitentiaries. There were 44 family members of the participants incarcerated now or in the past and only 31 of the non-participants' family members. Further, more of the non-participants appeared to be the first members of their families to be in prison.

There appear to be no difference between the two groups as to degree of felony committed. There were 18 participants and 19 non-participants sentenced for first degree felonies. Comparable data for second, third and fourth degree felonies were: 12 and 10; 2 and 5; and 16 and 18.

Perceptions of and attitudes toward the institution's education program. A regulation existed when the data gathering began that all men enrolled in the education program must live in the dormitory located directly above the school. Most of the men enrolled in the school at that time were black and consequently the dormitory was predominantly black. The faculty wondered if that fact actually deterred some potential enrollees from making a commitment to enroll. Although the differences in the mean scores of the participants and non-participants were not statistically significant, the participants mean score was 3.06 and the non-participant was 2.34. This showed that while the participants believed that living in the prescribed dormitory was neither desirable nor undesirable, the non-participants tended to state it would be somewhat undesirable to live in that dormitory. The frequencies for the two groups tell the story a little differently. With 'one' indicating living in the school dormitory was 'highly undesirable' and 'five' meaning it would be highly desirable, the participants' frequencies for 1-5 were: 10, 10, 7, 13 and 10. Frequencies for the non-participants were: 19, 10, 9, 9 and 3.

For some time before the research project began, the pay scale for going to school, working in the prison industries and working at maintaining the institution had varied, with education on the low end of the scale. That condition had been changed so that all activities were rewarded similarly as far as money was concerned. The belief was still around, however, that going to school meant less pay. When asked which activity paid more, the differences in the responses of the two groups were not significant, but the non-participants were slightly more likely to believe that less money could be earned while going to school. Most men knew there was no difference in pay, but 33 percent of the total group believed they were getting less.

The reaction of the men to the interview with school personnel in which they made the decision to enroll or not enroll in the school was a possible factor that might have affected enrollment. The differences between the two groups were not statistically significant, but the non-participants seemed less pleased with the interview than those who chose to participate.

An open ended question was asked about reasons for not enrolling. The two most often given responses were: (1) reluctance to leave their present dormitory and move to the school dormitory and (2) they expected to go before the parole board soon and did not want to be in an educational program that might cause the board to defer their release while they completed it.

Female teachers were a rather recent phenomenon at the school at the time the research began. While their presence could have been a deterrent or an encouragement to enroll, it was determined to ask the opinion of the men about women as teachers in a male correctional institution. The mean scores for this item showed the men had ambivalent or neutral feelings about women teachers. The participants were, however, more likely to be neutral and the non-participants were more likely to state they thought their presence was not a good idea.

Conclusions

1. In general, the lack of significant differences between participants and non-participants indicates there may be only a few characteristics of the two groups that would lead to the development of changes in the educational program which would result in more present non-participants deciding to enroll.

2. If strongly negative perceptions of success in school led to dropping out, they occurred some time after elementary school where the men did not perceive they were highly unsuccessful or markedly successful.

3. Family and community members are remembered as being supporters of the idea of education leading to success in life.

4. The fact of low scores on a test of reading ability and ninth grade attendance bring success in grade school into question. Many of these men must have been incapable of doing high school work.

5. They do not recall their homes of orientation as being unhappy or associated with usual characteristics of poverty.

6. They do not recall having been excessively dependent as adolescents and show some signs of becoming increasingly independent.

7. There is a pattern of incarceration in many families, indicating a need for teachers in prisons to be aware of possible value differences between them and their students.

8. They are more often unemployed than the general population, but not necessarily more so than some sub-groups to which they belong.

9. Rumors die hard. Attitudes toward assumed pay scales for work in the institution and living in the prescribed dormitory may have been among the most influential reasons for non-participation.

10. While the perceptions reported here provide a beginning in understanding why incarcerated males decide whether to further their education, only more in-depth research, possibly qualitative in nature, will confirm these or discover other more important ones.

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Abstract

Title: Adult Classroom Locus of Control

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In a five year study, with 457 graduate students in 20 classes, students' preferred locus of control/responsibility was assessed during the first of 15 class meetings, using a Locus of Responsibility test. (Supple and Fergusen, 1978.) The students' preferred behavior in the classroom on 12 concerns of instructional practice, e.g., assessing needs, setting goals, evaluating course, among others, was determined to be a "shared or jointly planned" responsibility with the instructor. The choices included "teacher directed," "more with the teacher," "shared or jointly planned," "more with the student," and "all with the student." (rating 1-5 respectively)

The theoretical basis for this study was Tough's analysis of locus of control, Tough's adults learning alone research, Caffallera's research on the meaningfulness of contracting to bring about self-directed learning and Knowles' self-directedness. The questions raised are: Do students who choose classroom learning with an instructor perceive self-directed learning to be a part of its organization and learning processes? Are classroom processes conducive to self-directed learning? What is the optimal level of control by an instructor for classroom learning as perceived by the students?

The findings of the study indicate that the mean score of the students was 2.67. The difference of means(t-test) between "on campus" and "off campus" was not significant (.164). The difference in mean between class size "20 or under" and "over 20" was not significant (.034). Differences of mean between four different courses over the five years was not significant (highest, 1.43), nor were the differences compared by year significant (highest, 1.25). However, there was a change in mean scores.

Changes in mean scores appeared, for example, in class size "20 or under" was 2.76 whereas "over 20" was 2.65; off campus mean score was 2.70 while on-campus was 2.67. Differences in item's mean scores are broader. Further comparisons of mean scores and tests of significance will be provided.

Conclusions drawn are: 1) Classroom learning is not perceived by students to include self-directed processes; 2) Classroom processes are not conducive to self-directed initiatives and learning; 3) The optimal level of control by an instructor for classroom learning as perceived by the students is a shared responsibility approximately 55% - 45% instructor to student; 4) There is a change or movement in students' preference toward making more classroom decisions over the five years of the study, yet these differences are not significant; 5) Class size, location of class, and difference in courses do not contribute to difference in preferred locus of control by students who have selected a classroom learning experience.

In a practical way, many teachers who have felt guilty for not providing more options for self-directed learning will recognize their perceptions have been legitimized. However, other issues have been raised: "Where do we teach adults how to be self-directed? Are graduates typical of all adult learners? Should the locus of control assessment take place at different times in the course?" among other issues.

A paper which includes an analysis of theory base, tables of means and t-tests of findings, used in this study and application, will be disseminated as the basis of discussions during the presentation.

Adult Classroom Locus of Control

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Overview

In a five year study, with 457 graduate students in 20 classes, students' preferred locus of control/responsibility was assessed during the first of 15 class meetings, using a Locus of Responsibility test. (Supple and Fergusen, 1978) The students' preferred behavior in the classroom on 12 concerns of instructional practice, e.g., assessing needs, setting goals, evaluating course, among others, was determined to be a "shared or jointly planned" responsibility with the instructor. The choices included "teacher directed," "more with the teacher," "shared or jointly planned," "more with the student," and "all with the student." (rating 1-5 respectively)

The findings indicate that the mean score of the students was 2.67. Differences in mean scores between four courses, size of class, place of course, and year of course were not significant. Conclusions drawn are: 1) Classroom preferred student style is "shared" rather than "self-directed"; 2) Classroom processes are not conducive to self-directed initiatives and learning but out of class instructor/learner interactions may be used; 3) the optimal level of control by an instructor is approximately 55% instructor and 45% student.

Background

The instructor of adults may use many tools to determine the preferences, styles, or abilities of the learners. One preference is the degree of instructor control or power which learners prefer while engaging in the instructional interaction. Tough (1982:104-117) describes this phenomenon and notes the instructor control over learner behavior may range from 0% to 100% altering by subject, setting, nature of program/class as well as level of ability and knowledge learners possess. Such potential flexibility demands an instructor determine the level of preferred locus of control for each class.

Recognizing this potential change in preference especially among graduate students (age 22-73 years) at the masters and doctoral levels, an analysis was begun to determine the degree of flexibility and change among graduate students in their locus of control/responsibility.

It began as an instructional analysis to determine the readiness of the students to be self-directed, to take more responsibility for their learning and to determine the match between preferred instructor strategies. and those of each class of students, and grew into a long range analysis.

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Used over a 5 year period with 20 class groups and 457 graduate adult students, the results of this analysis have greater value. The findings generated provide a comprehensive view of adult classroom learning preferences, preferred instructor/learner interaction and describes clearly the general readiness of adult students to accept responsibility for learning alone and in groups. 1) It demonstrates highly differentiated preferences by student for greater or lesser responsibility in selected areas. 2) It demonstrates that the concept of "adult learning alone" may not be appropriate in all aspects of a classroom learning experience when that form of learning (i.e. classroom) has been selected by the learners. 3) It demonstrates there is a very viable third choice of a learning responsibility model selected by students: the all teacher-directed learning model and the student-directed learning model gives way to the model in which the concept of mutually/jointly planned learning activities is preferred.

Methods

The Locus of Responsibility test (Copyrighted by Chuck Supple and Jack Fergusen, 1978) was given during the first of 15 class meetings. It measured the students' preferred behavior in the classroom on 12 concerns of instructional practice, e.q. assessinq needs, settinq qoals, evaluatinq courses, selectinq projects, amonq others. Students selected one of five choices for each item, i.e. 1) teacher directed, 2) more with the teacher, 3) shared or jointly planned, 4) more with the student and 5) all with the student (Likert scale 1 through 5).

Fiqure 1

Sample Size N=457 in 20 Classes

	1979-80	1980-81	1981-82	1982-83	1983-84
Course 921	24*[1]		22 28 34*	16 20	34* 15
Course 822	21 [2]	19	8	23 21	22
Course 824	11	28	24	46*	30
Course 821			11		
Total	56	47	127	126	101

1. *Shows off-campus
2. All others on-campus

Findings

The findings, in Table I, indicate that the mean score of the students was 2.67. The difference of means (t-test) between "on-compus" and "off-campus" as shown in Table II was not significant (.164). The difference in mean between class size "20 or under" and "over 20" as shown in Table III was not significant (.034). Differences of mean between four different courses over the five years as shown in Table IV was not significant (highest, 1.43), nor were the differences compared by year significant (highest, 1.25) as supported in Table V. However, there was a change in mean scores. Class size "20 and under" was 2.76 whereas "over 20" was 2.65; off-campus mean score was 2.70 while on-campus was 2.67. Differences between items mean scores were broader.

Table I

Scores by Preferences of 457 Students

	1	2	3	4	5	Mean
1. Re: Goals	25	194	227	12	2	2.63
2. Re: Topics	17	212	199	28	2	2.54
3. Re: Format	41	286	129	3	1	2.23
4. Re: Attendance	79	160	142	54	25	2.55
5. Re: Presentation	19	218	198	12	1	2.41
6. Re: Readings	29	179	179	54	4	2.63
7. Re: Deadlines	56	156	216	28	2	2.49
8. Re: Projects	2	19	235	168	28	3.41
9. Re: Progress	6	94	336	21	2	2.84
10. Re: Grading	30	178	225	22	1	2.53
11. Re: Course Evaluation	4	26	261	143	27	3.38
12. Re: Student Evaluation	29	171	234	17	2	2.52
% of Response	.737	4.142	5.647	1.251	.212	
N =	337	1893	2581	572	97	
					Overall Mean Score	2.67

Table II

"t" Differences Between On-Campus/Off-Campus and Gross Scores

	Gross	Off-Campus	On-Campus
Gross		.108	.055
Off-Campus			.164

Table III

"t" Differences Between Size of Class

	20 & Under	Over 20	Total
20 & Under		.0340	.0056
Over 20			.031

Table IV

"t" tests re: 4 courses

	921	822	824	821
921		1.43	6.12	.96
822	1.43	--	1.05	.76
824	.61	1.05	--	.51
821	.96	.76	.51	--

Table V

"t" tests re: 5 years

	1979-80	1980-81	1981-82	1982-83	1983-84
1979/80	----	.105	.213	.408	.738
1980/81	.105	----	.220	.891	.332
1981/82	.214	.220	----	.668	.558
1982/83	.409	.871	.668	----	1.252
1983/84	.738	.332	.558	1.25	----

Discussion

These results should not really be surprising, yet they are to many persons who would like to believe that adult learners wish to be totally self-directed. When adults decide to enter a learning group or class, they do so with a purpose. Tough's early analysis of adults learning projects (1979) found that adults engage in learning in groups only 20% of the time while learning alone in 80% of the time. There is a conscious decision made by an adult to join a group and interact with the instructor which leads to the greater potential that the learners wish the instructor to take at least an equal share in teaching/learning processes. Such a rationale for these findings can be strengthened by Caffallera's research (1984:7-10, 25-26) which questions the meaningfulness of contracting and its role in assisting students to be self-directed learners. Hundreds of students tested found small value in the process. Thus the questions remain: Do students who choose classroom learning with an instructor perceive self-directed learning to be a part of its organization and learning processes? Are classroom processes conducive to self-directed learning? What is the optimal level of control for classroom learning as perceived by the students?

Conclusions

The conclusions reached via this study are that: 1) classroom learning, as measured by locus of control, is not perceived by students to include self-directed processes but rather shared/jointly planned processes; 2) self-directed initiatives by the instructor do not provide appropriate level of classroom control; 3) the optimal level of control by an instructor as perceived by the students is a shared responsibility approximately 55% instructor and 45% student; 4) there is a change or movement in students preference toward making more classroom decisions over the five years of the study, yet these differences are not significant; 5) class size, location of class and difference in courses do not contribute to differences in preferred locus of control by students who have selected a classroom learning experience.

Implications

In a practical way, many teachers, who have felt guilty for not providing more options for self-directed learning, will recognize their perceptions have been legitimized. However, other issues have been raised: Where do we teach adults how to be self-directed? Are graduates typical of all adult learners? Should the locus of control assessment take place at different times in the course? When should self-directed initiatives take place?; Is being self-directed a state of mind or a specific instruction and/or learning process?; Is the process an outcome of a belief of an instructor or a belief-free process?

This study has generated many questions about instructional theory and practice, but it has also assisted this instructor to select her classroom techniques with a clear rationale. The techniques selected include, among others, mutual planning techniques, problem solving and case analysis techniques in which small and large group interaction takes place. This instructor uses diagnostic tools, needs assessment, and contracting but it is made very clear to the students that these are devices to increase shared/joint decision-making in classroom practices. Those students in need of being more self-directed are encouraged while others are encouraged to share in the group processes, also a needed skill.

The results of each class Locus of Responsibility/Control survey is reported to each class along with the instructor preferences. In this way mutual understanding of intentions and expectations of all class members and the instructor supports the techniques selected via this diagnostic aid. The outcomes over the five years of the study in course, instructor and student evaluation and achievement demonstrate its success.

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER Self-Direction: A Clarification of Terms and Causes

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The increased attention given self-directed adult learning calls for a clarification of terms used in conjunction with the concept. Self-direction can be examined either as the role the learner plays in the conducting of the learning process or as the stage of personal development attained by the adult learner. The purpose of this paper was to examine terminology and concepts related to self-direction as a stage of development and to apply the findings of interviews of 65 adult learners to an analysis of causes of such development.

The concepts of inner-directedness, internal locus of control, and autonomy are examined as used in the writings of Riesman, Shostrom, Rotter, Erickson, and Piaget. Distinctions among these concepts as well as their applicability to self-directed learning are noted. The notion of autonomy as a stage of individual development is seen as having particular appropriateness to self-directed learning.

Comparisons are made between the interviews of the 15 most self-directed and 15 most dependent adult learners interviewed. Three case studies are also presented. Three factors emerge as particularly important in the development of self-direction. They are: (1) role models; (2) a sense of identity and self-esteem; and (3) a superior perception of reality.

It is concluded that both adeptness in the process of learning and development of a state of personal autonomy are important to the self-directed learner. Both of these competencies can be learned.

SELF-DIRECTION: A CLARIFICATION OF TERMS AND CAUSES

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While the term, self-direction, has become increasingly popular in the literature of adult education during the past two decades, little has been done to clarify the meaning of the term or to examine factors related to its development. As a result, a number of unfounded assumptions have become popular, not the least of these being that the average person prefers self-directed approaches to any learning and that most adults are competent in directing learning activities for themselves. Recent reactions against such unfounded assumptions could be equally disturbing were they to be based on equally nebulous approaches to definitions of self-direction. The examination of individual approaches to learning is at a point where clarification of terminology would seem essential to further progress in understanding self-directed learning efforts of adults.

Two distinct approaches can be taken in any analysis of self-direction. The concept can be examined either as a role adopted during the process of learning or as a psychological state attained by an individual in personal development. Both factors can be viewed as developed abilities and, hence, analyzed both as to how they are learned and how they affect self-directed learning efforts.

Self-direction and the Learning Process

Tough's (1971) research dramatically increased attention given to the self-directed nature of adult learning projects. However, Tough himself tended to speak in terms of "highly deliberate efforts" or "self planned activities" rather than "self-directed learning." Other adult educators have spoken explicitly of self-direction as a major consideration when examining roles played by the adult in the learning process. For example, Knowles (1975) defined self-directed learning as:

> a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing, and implementing appropriate learning strategies and evaluating learning outcomes. (p. 18)

Guglielmino (1977) developed an instrument, "The Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale," to assess the degree to which the learner is ready to take control of the learning process. Smith (1983) won recognition from the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education (AAACE) for his contribution to helping adults learn how to manage their learning processes. More recently Chene' (1983) provided a critical analysis of the concept of autonomy in self-directed learning questioning the possibility of the learner ever achieving true autonomy especially in light of everyone's dependence on others for the norms or standards essential throughout the learning process.

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Having "tried to discover the hidden contradictions behind the explicit discourse on autonomy in adult education" (p. 45), she went on to conclude that "It is to the advantage of both the adult educator and the adult learner to clarify the significance of their relationship in the area of learning as well as the conditions and limits of autonomy when it is applied to learning and educational endeavor." (p. 46) This concern for clarification of the conditions or limits of self-direction was quite evident among adult educators gathered at the 1984 Adult Education Research Conference in Raleigh for it arose frequently in discussions on various topics presented.

Self-direction and Personal Development

While the above mentioned researchers at times alluded to the psychological status of the learner, their major attention was focused upon the process of learning. The stage of personal development reached by the independent learner is significant to self-directed learning efforts but has received less attention from adult educators. In fact, much popular discussion has tended to equate self-directedness with independence, autonomy, and inner-directedness, occasionally even implying that all the self-directed are field independent learners possessing an internal locus of control.

Inner-directedness was a term popularized by Riesman in The Lonely Crowd. This 1950 analysis of the changing American character was an attempt to explain the influence of changing society on the individual's character. The inner-directed man, according to Riesman, had been given early in life a type of build-in gyroscope which became the inner impulse that directed all his actions. The other-directed individual in contradistinction responded to external controls. He had internalized the equipment necessary to gather signals from many sources rather than the code of behavior internalized by the inner-directed person. Societies in transition depend for coherance on a social character that is guided by an internal set of directives while societies experiencing population decline ensure conformity through the other-directed who are sensitive to the expectations and needs of their fellow citizens.

The term, inner-directedness, was adapted by Shostrom (1966) as a major construct in his test of self-actualization. He concurred with Maslow (1954) that the self-actualizing individual was neither extremely inner- nor other-directed. Such a person was concerned about the good will and affection of others and did not equate freedom with rebellion. However, the course of his actions was essentially inner-directed, yet transcending constantly earlier developed principles of living. Because of the rather frequent use of Shostrom's Personal Orientation Inventory in studies of personal development, this concept of the self-directed individual as an autonomous, self-supported, growth oriented being with a high degree of self-confidence and aggressiveness tempered a bit by respect and concern for others has achieved a solid niche in the literature.

A somewhat similar construct was developed by Rotter (1954) and has been popularly labled "locus of control." However, while Riesman was attempting to describe the effect of society on character, Rotter was concerned with the effect of reinforcement on learning. He noted that the learner who perceived his success to be due to his own efforts rather than chance factors or others' influence learned better. Rotter (1966) developed an Internal-External scale that has also become the base for much research in learning and personality. In fact, the Coleman Report (1966, p. 23) found the sense of control to have a stronger relationship to achievement than all the school variables together at least among disadvantaged children.

A related concept is that of autonomy. It has become familiar to educators through the works of developmentalists such as Erickson and Piaget. For Erickson (1964) the second stage in a child's development was a time for the person to learn to hang on or let go in accord with the conventions of society. If the child could learn to cooperate without loosing self-esteem a sense of autonomy rather than shame and doubt developed. This sense of trust of self and others was important for later development of the person. Piaget (1969) gave, as an example of youth reaching a state of autonomy, the stage at which the ability to move from seeing rules as inviolate to being able to change them in order to make the game more worthwhile occurred. Again, it was stressed that this stage of development was vital to independent behavior in later life. It should be noted here that Riesman (1950) also used the term autonomy, in his analysis of development of the person. For him, it characterized the person who was adjusted to his culture and thus could function in it as an individual.

One other construct should be mentioned here, not because of its direct relationship to the concepts mentioned above, but rather because it has occasionally been linked indirectly to self-direction. Field independence refers to a cognitive trait rather than a stage of personal development. The concept was developed by Witkin (1971) to explain perceptual differences observed among subjects. The field independent person demonstrated the ability to perceive characteristics of an object independently of general context, or field. The field dependent person needed an orientation to the total field or structure in order to perceive accurately elements of that field. A number of researchers have attempted to relate these distinct approaches to perception to other characteristics or traits. Even though such correlations have occasionally been noted, it is the opinion of this writer that such attempts to link cognitive traits to stages of personal development can only result in confusion of issues and are to be studiously avoided.

In summary, there seem to be at least three major threads in the literature that relate to the stage of development at which the self-directed adult learner might operate. Inner-directedness conotes the degree to which the individual uses internal directives to guide his behavior. Internality of control refers to an acceptance that one's own actions have a major influence on one's fate. Autonomy implies a stage of development at which a person can accept or reject enticements for action as he or she sees fit. Certainly all have their applicability to the concept of self-directed learning; however, the word, autonomy, would appear most appropriate to indicate the stage of personal development in which we might expect a learner to act in a self-directed manner.

Data From a Follow-up Study of Adult Learners

In a recent evaluation study (Fellenz, Conti, & Brekelbaum, 1982) 65 adult learners were interviewed in an attempt to assess the effect of their educational as well as their general life experiences on the development of certain characteristics or abilities. One of the traits examined was an increased ability to be self-directed. The interviewees were given no specific definition of self-direction but rather engaged in a general conversation regarding their approach to decision making and the impact of the opinion of others on what they did. When the conversation had reached a point at which the individual had identified general tendencies in the area and mentioned specific instances of decision making, the interviewer began to probe for the subject's perception of why he or she acted in this manner. ("Think back in your life and tell me how you got to be that way.") If no mention was made of any educational experience, the learner was asked if anything that happened in school or anything a teacher did influenced their sense of self-direction. All responses judged significant by the interviewers were written down and later were reviewed and analyzed by this researcher. Both the interviewer and the reviewer made an assessment of the relative degree of self-development shown by the interviewee.

One analysis of the data compared the responses of the 15 individuals who appeared to be most self-directed to those of the 15 who seemed most dependent. Many of those judged autonomous had openly spoken of themselves as independent, making statements such as: "I don't ask others what I should do and don't worry about what they will say if I act differently." Quite a few softened their statements with admissions that in important matters they did consult with knowledgeable others. Others acknowledged that the possibility of harming those around them would cause them to rethink their decision. Their analysis of factors that influenced the growth of self-direction frequently led them to discussions of role models from childhood or youth. Several insisted that circumstances in life were the major cause of their independence--they had to take care of themselves to survive. As for educational influences, several did mention teacher models, but the most striking comments can from a young man with high praise for the methodology used by his high school teachers. "They didn't teach much; at least not in the traditional sense of telling us things. They gave assignments, posed problems, told us where we might find some resources--and sent us out to learn!"

The 15 people judged least self-directed also were quite open about their dependence on others. They always asked before they did things; they quickly changed their plans if someone disagreed. The striking difference was that most could give no reason nor remember any incident for developing such a degree of dependence. Others talked in general terms of families that did not trust them or teachers who wanted to be asked before anything was done.

Three of the interviews were compiled into case studies (Fellenz, 1982) and are synopsized below. All three of these adults had been interviewed in Adult Basic Education learning centers.

"Billy" was only 18 but already he realized he would go no where in life without a high school diploma. A few months on a construction crew and he had become a supervisor--he had the math skills to figure square footage and materials needed. But he saw he would go no higher without the credentials. Billy talked of what it was like to grow up "on the streets." The youngest of five children in a minority family, he learned to take care of himself. His only confidants appeared to be "my friend" and "the old man." Apparently this old man was also a creature of the street, but one who had survived for decades on his instincts alone. References to the old man were frequent and his influence on Billy was excessive. If the old man said it was so, it must be. But if anyone else suggested anything, Billy rebelled. "My family was ready to give advice but not to help. So I'd do it on my owm." He gave his philosophy of life as: "Life is nothing but a big gamble. You have to look at it that way or you would kill yourself worrying. You look, decide, and do rather than worry and think about it." Billy did his own thing--in order to survive.

"Isabel" was a 40 year old Hispanic who had never made a decision on her own until her husband died. As the eldest in a large family, her father insisted that she set a good example for the rest of the children. As a wife and mother, she accepted complete dependence on her husband. Relatives and friends, the priests of her church, and more recently her teenage children all told her what to do. But now at the adult learning center she was experiencing new models of behavior. The teachers were helpers but not pushers; they left many decisions up to the learners. Moreover, one of her new friends at the center was a very independent woman. Isabel was now beginning to make some decisions for herself--and some were working out well!

"Beth" escaped an unhappy home by marrying at 15. Mothering two healthy and happy children made her feel a successful adult--until her husband announced he had seen to it that they would have no more children. Beth talked of how she had analysed her situation: 18 years old, 80 pounds overweight, no skills (not even a driver's license), and every day becoming more dependent on her husband. She decided: "I could no longer live that way," and completely changed her appearance, earned a GED, enrolled in continuing education courses, and change her way of relating to her husband. Her explanation of her new independence was that it was due to maturity. She had seen a need to change, had experienced a few successes, and now was well on her way to taking charge of her life.

Factors Influencing Self-Direction

Rotter (1975) has insisted: "If such [personality] differences do exist, identifying people and the experiences they have had which led to these differences could be of enormous practical significance in our society." The case studies and the other interview data reported above seem to point to three factors as major influences on the development of self-direction. They are: (1) role models of autonomous behavior; (2) a sense of personal identity or self-worth that leads to a taking charge of at least some aspects of one's life; and (3) a more nebulous factor that seems to this writer to relate to what Maslow (1968) spoke of as a superior perception of reality.

Isabel is a good example of the effect of models on behavior. She had completely accepted the cultural role of a dependent woman until she experienced new models in the learning center. Billy and Beth as well as many of the other adults mentioned such models during the interviews. They also commented repeatedly about the approach of adult education teachers as facilitators rather than directors. The influence of modeling on internal control is supported by researchers such as Pehazur and Wheeler (1971) who found that internality increased among Black and Puerto Rican subjects after reading a story in which internal control was portrayed.

A healthy self-concept together with the ability to relate to others and a positive outlook on life are all factors that Shostrom (1966) included in his measure of inner-directedness. Beth is a prime example of an individual who worked through her problems and came out came out with a positive outlook on herself and on life in general. This was also characteristic of interviewees judged most self-directed and atypical of the least autonomous.

Billy had a very limited view of reality; he was a rebel, acting not in an inner-directed mode but in opposition to those around him. Although many of those interviewed spoke of the hardships of life as leading to independence, their decisions were frequently uninformed and not in their own best interest. Knox (1977, pp. 362-65) addressed the need to take surrounding people and circumstances into account in effective decision making but insisted that value clarification and priority setting were also necessary for autonomy. Such ability to perceive reality would seem essential to self-direction and supportive of the concept that autonomy is a developmental goal.

Conclusion

In examining the issue of self-directed learning adult educators might profitably reflect on the words of Rotter (1975):

> It seems clear that there is a common core to the social sciences, in that they are all concerned with the acquired or partially acquired goal-directed behavior of people. . . . Experimental psychologists who are interested in human learning, perception, and problem solving must sooner or later recognize that vast individual differences exist among people and that some of these differences fall within the realm of personality psychology. (pp. 169-70)

Self-directed learning is important to adults, but to become proficient at it they must not only be trained in the process of learning but also be competent to act as autonomous individuals. Both competencies can be learned.

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER Participation in Learning Activities by Active Older Adults

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The purpose of this study was to identify distinguishing characteristics of active older adults who participate in educational activities and to describe the relationship between their reasons for participation and the educational needs which were met by the particular learning activities they chose. A survey instrument was used with 786 older adults in Milwaukee County. Wisconsin; participants in educational activities were then matched with nonparticipants on the basis of age, sex, marital status, and socio-economic status. Participants differed from nonparticipants in their level of educational attainment, anomia, propensity to engage in self-directed learning, awareness of learning needs, awareness of sites where educational activities were available, and awareness of factors inhibiting participation. Approximately three fourths of the educational activities in which the subjects participated or desired to participate responded to their need for enjoyment or personal satisfaction.

PARTICIPATION IN LEARNING ACTIVITIES BY ACTIVE OLDER ADULTS

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Introduction

Census data describe the increase in the population of older adults and indicate that this segment of the population has a lower level of educational attainment than younger and middle-aged adults. Studies have shown that participation in educational activities is negatively correlated with age and positively correlated with educational attainment (Johnstone and Rivera, 1965). However, age and educational attainment do not completely account for an individual's participation in educational activities. Other studies have identified psychological and sociological characteristics which may be closely related to participation in educational activities. Anomia has been shown to be inversely related to participation in educational activities by adults (Rose, 1971); similarly life satisfaction has been shown to be related to participation in organizational activity among older adults, leading one to hypothesize a similar relationship between life satisfaction and participation in educational activities (Cutler, 1973).

The purpose of this study was to identify distinguishing characteristics of active older adults who participate in educational activities and to describe the relationship between their reasons for participation and the educational needs which were met by the particular learning activities they chose.

Methodological and Theoretical Perspective

The dependent variables were participation and nonparticipation in educational activities by active older adults; independent variables were educational attainment, anomia, life satisfaction, and certain other factors such as self-directed learning, program awareness, present learning activities, learning needs, and factors which motivate or inhibit participation. Information was gathered using the Srole Anomia Scale (Srole, 1956), the Life Satisfaction Index A (Neugarten, B., Havighurst, R., and Tobin, S., 1961), the Fisher Self-Directed Learning Index (Fisher, 1979) and direct questions combined in a structured interview or questionnaire format.

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A survey instrument was used with 786 active older adults at 8 gathering places for seniors in Milwaukee County, Wisconsin. An active older adult was defined as a person 55 years of age or above who was a participant in a program designed for older adults. From a demographic perspective, the subjects may be described according to age: 20.6% between 55 and 64, 52.8% between 65 and 74, 26.3%, age 75 and above; sex: 21.7% male and 78.2% female; marital status: 39.3% married and 60.7% not married; and occupational status: 48.9% high and 51.1% low. Of the total population surveyed, 49.7% were participants in educational activities and 50.3% were nonparticipants.

In order to control for age, sex, marital status, and socio-economic status, participants in educational activities were matched with nonparticipants on the basis of these demographic variables, resulting in a group of 211 participants matched with a group of 211 nonparticipants on the basis of identical values describing the age, sex, marital status, and socio-economic status of the individual subjects.

Howard McClusky's paradigm of the educational needs of older adults was used to group the various educational activities in which the subjects were engaged and the learning needs they identified. McClusky categorized the educational needs of older adults as coping, expressive, contributive, influence, and transcendence (McClusky, n.d.).

The data were analyzed using T-tests to measure the differences in mean scores between participants and nonparticipants on each of the independent variables. A multiple regression analysis was used to assess the amount of the variance in the dependent variables which could be attributed to the independent variables. Non-parametric correlation analyses were employed to measure the statistical significance of the relationships between self-stated reasons for participation and the educational needs which were met by the particular learning activities they chose.

Findings

The participants differed statistically from the nonparticipants on each of the independent variables except life satisfaction; differences were measured in level of educational attainment, anomia, and on such other factors as the propensity to engage in self-directed learning, awareness of learning needs, awareness of sites where educational activities were available, and awareness of factors inhibiting participation. See Table I.

These findings confirm that earlier research with the adult population generally is applicable to older adults at several points: Johnstone and Rivera (1965) noted the importance of prior educational experience and awareness of sites where educational activities were available as factors related to participation in educational activities. Seeman (1963) pointed to an inverse relationship between educational participation and an individual's sense of alienation or powerlessness.

TABLE I
A Comparison between Participants and Nonparticipants on Selected Dependent Variables

VARIABLE	MEAN SCORES	
	Participant	Nonparticipant
Educational Attainment	12+ grade	11+ grade *
Anomia (Srole Anomia Scale)	2.18	2.59 *
Life Satisfaction Index A	15.08	14.52
Self-Directed Learning	4.91	4.38 *
Awareness of Learning Needs	0.63	0.26 *
Awareness of Sites where educational activities are available	1.49	0.41 *
Awareness of factors inhibiting participation (total number of responses)	378.00	273.00 *

*Significant at the .01 level.

Using a regression analysis to assess the relative influence of these independent variables on the dependent variable, participation, it was found that the ability to list places where educational activities were available and the propensity of the subjects to engage in self-directed learning activities accounted for 28.7% of the total variance within the dependent variable. Level of educational attainment accounted for an additional .26%, awareness of learning needs, .22%, and anomia and life satisfaction together accounted for .27%. These independent variables together accounted for 29.45 of the variance in the dependent variable.

Participants gave the following reasons for their participation in learning activities: 83.9% of the participants came because they enjoyed being with other people; 79.6% came because they liked the challenge of learning; and 68.2% came because they were attracted by the usefulness of the subject matter. An analysis of the choice of educational activities revealed that those activities which responded to the expressive needs of the subjects dominated their choices, followed by coping, influence, and contributive. No courses were identified which fit the transcendence need. See Table II. These data indicate that approximately three fourths of the educational activities in which the subjects participated or desired to participate responded to their need for enjoyment or personal satisfaction.

TABLE II
Analysis Of Learning Needs
According To Present And Future Subject Matter

Educational Needs	No. of Current Educational Activities Identified	No. of Topics for Future Learning Identified by	
		Participants	Nonparticipants
Coping	34 (11.6%)	22 (19.0%)	7 (13.5%)
Expressive	233 (79.2%)	86 (74.1%)	41 (78.8%)
Contributive	14 (4.8%)	3 (2.6%)	2 (3.8%)
Influence	13 (4.4%)	5 (4.3%)	2 (3.8%)
Transcendence	0	0	0
Total	294	116	52

The data reveal a consistency between the the present choice of educational activities and the topics suggested for future learning and a consistency between topics suggested for future learning by the participants and topics suggested for future learning by the nonparticipants. One interpretation of the data is that subjects, both participants and nonparticipants, were strongly influenced in their understanding of their own learning needs by the subject matter of the educational activities which they perceived to be available to them.

Two of the measures describing reasons for attendance on the part of the participants, "usefulness of the subject matter," and "challenge of learning," were related at a statistically significant level ($p = .05$) with two of the measures describing the content of the educational activities, expressive and contributive, using a chi square analysis. This statistical relationship indicates that these particular measures of motivation and these particular choices of subject matter are not independent of each other.

Conclusions

These findings add to our understanding of the participation of older adults in educational activities by identifying basic differences between the participants and nonparticipants of those activities on such variables as level of educational attainment, anomia, self-directed learning, awareness of learning needs, awareness of sites where educational activities are available, and awareness of factors inhibiting participation in educational activities. They also present the self-expressed reasons for the participation of the subjects in these activities and identify the educational needs which those activities address.

This research adds to the knowledge of the characteristics of the older learner and tempers the traditional view that prior educational attainment is the most significant predictor of participation by adults in learning activities. It also emphasizes the capability of practitioners of educational services for older adults to influence participation by enhancing the educational awareness of older adult students.

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER The Influence of Self-Concept as Learner on
Participation Patterns of Adult Learners

AUTHOR Deborah Goodman, Ph.D.

K. Patricia Cross, In Adults as Learners, offers the Chain of Response (COR) model as an explanation of why adults do and do not participate in education. Two variables in the model--self-evaluation and attitudes about education--look at internal, psychological factors as the first barriers to participation. In an hypothesis about the relationship between the two variables, Cross Proposes that adults with low self-confidence in their learning ability will engage primarily or exclusively in what they perceive to be low-threat learning opportunities. This study tested that hypothesis with a sample of 252 adults participating in 37 different learning activities in Dodge City, Kansas from January, 1983 to June, 1983.

Low self-confidence in learning ability was measured by the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire, a 34-question locus of control paper and pencil test scored in the direction of internality. The test sampled equally the individual's acceptance of responsibility for success and failure in achieving learning outcomes. Reliability for the instrument was determined through split-half, calculating a Pearson correlation coefficient, with the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula applied to compensate for half-form estimation. The resulting reliability coefficient was .665. Point biserial correlations were run between individual test items and the total score, with significance set at $P \leq 0.05$. All but one test item correlated at $P \leq 0.002$.

From a survey of the literature, fourteen factors--such as sponsor, location purpose, duration--were determined to contribute to threat in the learning environment. These factors were presented on a Likert scale survey form to a sample of adults (N=413, response rate=35.3%) to determine which factor made them most uncomfortable (most threatened). Results were used to classify the learning activities as low, medium, and high threat. Due to the influence of the setting and of the demographic characteristics of the response group, these classifications must be applied only to this study. Other research reports similar responses, which allows for some generalization.

The research hypothesis tested for no significant differences in the means of self-concept as learner scores for adults enrolled in various learning activities. The One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used, and the hypothesis was rejected. Significant differences ($P \leq 0.05$) in means of self-concept as learner scores were found when participants were grouped according to enrollment in low, medium and high threat learning activities. Significant differences ($P \leq 0.05$) were also observed when participants were grouped according to each learning activity sample when grouped according to sponsor, and when grouped according to ethnic background. Chi-Square Tests for Contingency Tables were also run, with significant relationships ($P \leq 0.05$) found between the nominal variables of marital status, occupation, level of participation in learning activities, and ethnic background and enrollment in low, medium and high threat learning activities.

The results of this study showed that least-educated participants engaged in basic and vocational education showed lower groups means for self-concept as learner than participants with higher levels of educational attainment engaged in college level and independent learning activities. While threat in the learning environment may not be the cause of participation patterns, the results provide insight into self-concept.

THE INFLUENCE OF SELF-CONCEPT AS LEARNER ON PARTICIPATION PATTERNS OF ADULT LEARNERS

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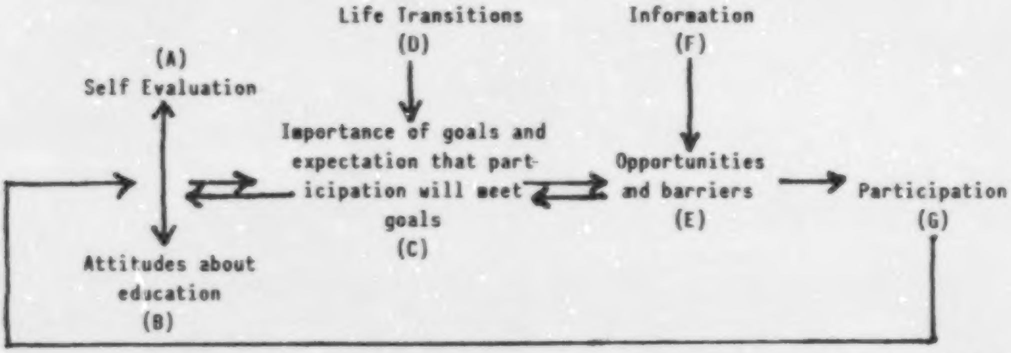
INTRODUCTION. K. Patricia Cross, in Adults as Learners (1981) proposes a theory of adults' participation in education which views participation as a phenomenon of the interaction and interrelation of several variables.

This proposition is consistent with theoretical work taking place in the psychology of motivation, where behavior is seen as "a constantly flowing stream rather than a series of discrete events" (deCharms and Muir, 1978, p. 93). In the COR model, stimulus for action begins with factors associated with the individual and moves to increasingly external conditions.

FIGURE I

Chain of Response (COR) Model for Understanding Participation in Adult Learning Activities


Life Transitions
(D)
Information
(F)
(A)
Self Evaluation
Importance of goals and expectation that participation will meet goals
(C)
Opportunities and barriers
(E)
Participation
(G)
Attitudes about education
(B)

While Cross indicates that she has overemphasized the linearity of the variables in the COR model, there is an important implication to their order (1981, p. 129). Most efforts to increase adult participation (as well as most research concerning participation) are focused at point E of the model: the removal of barriers and provision of opportunities. However, if negative forces overwhelm the individual prior to considering point E, chances are that removing barriers and providing opportunities will do little to increase that individual's participation. This seems particularly true in relation to the poorly educated, for in spite of efforts to remove barriers and provide opportunities, participation is not increased in that population (Harmon and Hunter, 1979, p. 97-101). The basic point of the COR model is that much greater attention than previously been given is required for understanding the forces generated by the internal psychological variables affecting sel-evaluation and attitudes toward education. Cross summarizes this point:

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> In short, if adult educators wish to understand why some adults fail to participate in learning opportunities, they need to begin at the beginning of the COR model--with an understanding of attitudes toward self and education (1981, p. 130).

STUDY DESIGN. The general hypothesis about the relationship of self-evaluation and attitudes toward education to actual participation are that those with low self-confidence in their learning ability believe that learning opportunities are threatening; consequently, they will avoid new learning opportunities because they do not expect to be successful in such situations (Cross, 1981, p. 133). These individuals have experienced failure in education in the past, and further education means the threat of further failure. In order to encourage such individuals to participate in continued education, adult educators must assist them in developing positive self-concepts as learners and must work to reduce the level of threat in learning activities. This study examined adults' attitude toward self-as-learner and toward education based on these assumptions that 1) organized learning activities hold an inherent threat to potential participants and 2) individuals with low self-confidence in their learning ability will avoid high threat learning activities. Two survey activities were conducted to provide answers to the following questions:

1. What factors or elements associated with learning activities make adults uncomfortable (threatened)?
2. Do adults enrolled in different learning activities--where some activities exhibit more threatening elements than other have differences in their self-concept as learners?

These survey activities were conducted in Dodge City, Kansas in the spring of 1983.

A review of the literature was the first step in the survey activity to determine which factors associated with a learning activity make adults uncomfortable or threatened. The literature revealed fourteen factors which were incorporated into the survey design: sponsor of the activity; type of credit offering associated with the activity; purpose of the activity; its duration in terms of days and weeks, the number of hours per day or week required for attendance; the method of instruction utilized in the activity; the individual's responsibility or input into determining the content of the class, the rate of progress, and the standards for grading; the method of assigning grades; the comparison of the individual's performance to that of others; the requirements for public participation in class activities; the location of the activity; and the method for enrolling in the activity (Cross, 1981; Knowles, 1980; Jones, 1981). Two questionnaires were utilized in this survey activity—one sought ratings on the factors in general as listed above; the other sought ratings on specific examples of the factor, i.e. public library as a specific example of sponsor. Return rates on the questionnaires were 33% and 37% respectively. Due to the setting of the study, respondents to these questionnaires were almost exclusively white and were primarily affluent and well-educated. Factors which the literature proposed as threatening were not considered threatening by this group. They preferred academic, formal educational characteristics as opposed to non-academic, informal characteristics. For this reason, the threat ratings assigned to learning activities in this study cannot be assigned to similar activities in other settings.

A review of the literature was also the first step in the survey activity which analyzed the differences in self-concept as learner of adults enrolled in different learning activities. Based on literature recommendations (Lefcourt, 1976; Phipps, 1981), the study examined self-concept strictly in relation to learning activities and used a locus of control measure to test such self-concept. Crandall, Katkovsky, and Crandall's Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire (1965) was modified and used. Individuals who demonstrated an internal locus of control on the IARQ--individuals who accepted responsibility for their success or failure in achieving learning outcomes--were seen to have high self-confidence in their learning ability or a positive self-concept as learner. The IARQ was administered to 252 adults enrolled in thirty-seven different learning activities. Each learning activity was classified as having low, medium, or high threat based on the results of the first survey activity. The means of the IARQ scores were used as dependent variables in the data analysis.

Data for the study were analyzed during the One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The primary research hypothesis was that there would be no significant differences in the means of self-concept scores as measured by the IARQ for adults enrolled in learning activities classified as low, medium or high threat. The hypothesis was rejected. Significant differences were found at the 0.05 level. Significant differences in the means of self-concept scores were also observed when participants were grouped according to each learning activity sample and when grouped according to the sponsor of the class. In examining the data in relation to the statistical tests, there is evidence that participants with lower educational levels who were engaged in adult basic education activities exhibit lower group means for self-concept as learners than adults with higher levels of education engaged in college level learning activities. The same was true for participants in vocational-education learning activities. While college learning activities were not considered to hold high threat in this study, the findings tend to correlate with Cross' hypothesis that individuals with low self-confidence in their learning ability will avoid high threat learning activities. Significant differences at the 0.05 level were also found in the means of self-concept scores when participants were grouped by ethnic background. In addition to these analysis, tests for significant relationships were made using the Chi-Square Tests for Contingency Tables. Significant relationships at the 0.05 level were observed for the nominal variables of marital status, education, occupation, level of participation in learning activities, and ethnic background in relation to enrollment in low, medium, and high threat learning activities.

CONCLUSIONS. As is always the case in research, this study almost certainly reflects the influence of its limitations. A large number of educational and learning activities are available in Dodge City, Kansas--a community of 18,000--and the population is relatively well-educated and active in continued learning. These factors almost certainly influenced the responses to threat in the learning environment, for the respondents rated factors in opposition to what the literature would hypothesize. Learning activities, were overall, non-threatening. This availability of learning activities could also make adults in Dodge City more comfortable with learning and more confident in themselves as learners. This could be the reason why, while the ANOVA showed an overall significant difference in means of self-concept scores, no one group of participants demonstrated a group mean significantly different from any other group.

However, while statistically significant differences were not observed in group means, those means corresponded to the directions hypothesized by the literature: lower group means on the self-concept scale were observed for participants in adult basic and vocational education, which Cross would probably label as a 4 on a scale of 1 to 5 (low to high), than for participants in college classes, which Cross would label as a 5 on a scale of 1 to 5 (low to high).

For this researcher, the most appropriate conclusion to be drawn from the study is that more research is needed in the area of self-concept as learner and threat in the learning environment. The literature indicates that individuals who had negative school experiences and who were dropouts and non-participants would have negative self-concepts as learners and would not enroll in high threat learning activities. Since the sample for the study did not include many representatives with these characteristics, it cannot confirm the literature's hypothesis. However, the study did seem to indicate that individuals who were high educational attainers and who were active participants did not find learning activities threatening and most held rather positive views of themselves as learners. These findings suggest that further study could possibly confirm the research hypothesis.

A citation from the literature review may provide explanation for the trend of lower group means on self-concept scores for adults engaged in basic and vocational education. Nan Booth, in "Alternative Learning Environments: Providing for the Urban Low-Income Black" cited Ivan Illich's concept of deschooling in proposing that there is a heirarchy of learning environments (1981, p. 13). Adults must pass successfully through the lower levels of the heirarchy before they can feel comfortable entering higher levels. This may mean that adults in higher education exhibit higher self-concepts as learners on the whole because they have had more successful learning experiences than adults who are participating at lower levels in the educational heirarchy.

Finally, we must realize that educational offerings fall on a heirarchy, as do adults' personal, social, and economic needs. We cannot realistically expect a high school drop out, who does not earn an adequate income, to be interested in a community college course in literature. First, this adult probably does not perceive college as the next step in his or her educational endeavor--completion of high school is. Secondly, this adult is likely to be overly concerned with money and job improvement and will see the literature course as an unjustified, non-profitable expenditure. In contrast, a welding class at the vocational school may be viewed favorably by this adult; one does not have to have a high school diploma to take the course and it could lead to a better paying job. Our job, as adult educators, is to ensure that adults are able to benefit from positive and successful educational experiences at whatever point they enter the educational heirarchy. Success leads to success; participation leads to participation. Setting realistic goals for ourselves and our adult learners will ensure such success and continued participation.

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ADULT DEVELOPMENT IN MID-LIFE, CHILDLESS WOMEN

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Abstract

Scholars such as McKeachie have suggested that educational research needs to focus on specific populations. This is especially true in the area of adult development. Experiential evidence indicates that middle-aged, childless women may have a distinct developmental pattern which is different from their cohort group. The objective of this study was to use the naturalistic inquiry technique of in-depth, open-ended interviews to explore for differential developmental patterns that might exist for this group and to theorize about any differences that might be found.

The project utilized naturalistic inquiry. In this method the field researcher interacted directly with the subjects. Subjects were identified who met the criteria of being middle-aged, childless women and who had the potential of discussing events in their life histories in interviews. An interview schedule was developed to probe life experiences in order to uncover the approaches these women used for problem-solving, relating to others, and the development of self. Since the goal of this project was to generate theory related to adult development of a specific group, the interview schedule was constantly refined in relationship to the data collected and in congruence with the naturalistic inquiry methodology.

Eighteen successful, professional women were interviewed in the South, Midwest, Southwest, and on the West coast. Results point to the universal presence of unfailing support networks of friends and spouses/partners which encourage and facilitate personal and career change. Support toward change far outweighs constraints against it; few constraints were even identified. The willingness and ability to take significant risks (e.g., financial, professional, and personal) also characterizes these respondents. Spontaneous mention by respondents of the learning that occured via the interview process was an unexpected outcome.

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Introduction

It has been said that the same Chinese symbol represents both "crisis" and "dangerous opportunity". What, then, determines whether one's experiences are seen as crises or opportunities? Adults face this dilemma because of the natural transition periods during adulthood. Erikson, Vaillant, Levinson, and Gould point out that transitions are inevitable as well as necessary and may result in mid-life in the realization of new capacities and talents (Davis & Gould, 1981).

Although some people do experience mid-life crisis, "an extreme case of the normal process of mid-life transitions" (p. 118) benefit often evolves from transition, and the norm is for adults to move through mid-life transitions without a crisis. Indeed, mid-life is a time when the personal themes that have accompanied one through life become prevalent. These are analyzed and resolved by the now-mature adult mind. The prize for successful mid-life transition is freedom from the blind acquiescence to the rules and regulations imposed by influential others such as parents, bosses, and colleagues. (Davis & Gould, 1981)

Other developmental psychologists concur that mid-life can be a growth period. Robert Kegan (personal communication, June 14, 1983) illustrated this concept with his helex approach which he described as "over familiar terrain but at a higher level". Sheehy (1976) echoed the theme of predictability, desirability. and growth-producing opportunity. Likewise, in a 1980 study involving a representative sample of nearly 2,000 Americans 25 years of age or older, Aslanian and Brickell found that 80% of adult learners interviewed described transition as a factor which motivated them to learn.

Reviews of the adult development literature and observations of transitions, risk-taking behavior, and the resulting changes made by some mid-life, childless women suggested that there might be differences unique to this group. Much of the current adult development literature is based on research with male respondents. Among others, Giele (1982) suggests the need for attention to "the distinct dilemmas and issues experienced by women"(p. 2).

Sample

The respondents in this study live and work in large and medium-sized cities, small towns, and villages in the Midwest, the South, the Southwest and on the West Coast. Their ages range from 34 years to 45 years . Among them are a writer; a teacher of gifted children in an inner-city school; a sixth grade teacher in a southern city; a surgeon; an artist/educator; a physician; an attorney; a judge; a designer/jeweler; a former legal

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assistant currently not working for pay; the vice-president of an agricultural engineering firm who is also co-owner of a commercial beekeeping operation; an administrator and a psychotherapist both working in the area of women's health; a speech therapist now trained as a professional mediator; a university faculty member who is pursuing a second doctorate; an administrative assistant; a nurse specialist; and a university department chairperson who is also pursuing a doctorate.

Six respondents are married, and four have never been married. The remaining eight have been married and divorced. Of the latter, five have remarried, and three are currently single with one having a long-term partner. By any standard all the respondents are "successful" and are highly verbal and articulate. They willingly discussed their experiences, their relationships with significant others, their ideas, and their feelings. Each spoke easily, confidently, and straight forwardly about her success and competence.

All of the initial interviews were conducted in person over a six-month period. With some of the respondents, follow up has been via telephone, correspondence, or personal contact. On-going contact has been possible with 10 respondents.

Methodology

In designing the study, the naturalistic inquiry method utilizing in-depth, open-ended, personal interviews was selected as the most appropriate method for gathering data in pursuit of "grounded theory" which might emerge from the data (Glaser and Strauss cited in Owens, 1982). Naturalistic inquiry:

> (1) primarily employ[s] direct contact between investigators and actors in the situation as a means of collecting data, (2) use[s] emergent strategies to design the study rather than a priori specification, (3) develop[s] data categories from examination of the data themselves after collection, and (4) do[es] not attempt to generalize the findings to a universe beyond that bounded by the study. (Owens, 1982, p. 7)

Owens further states that "...the naturalistic methodologist often seeks to confirm through the intensive study of a small group or even a single individual" (p. 10) and that although not inclusive the normal methods used are participant observation, unstructured and open-ended interviewing, and document analysis (p. 18). Others (Darkenwald, 1980; Giele, 1982; Guba, 1978; Guba and Lincoln, 1982; Merriman and Jones, 1983) support naturalistic inquiry as a means of seeking understanding and explanation of problems.

Discussion

As a result of examining the interviews, there emerged three dominate categories. They include significant life changes, the ability to tolerate considerable risk taking, and the existence of unfailing support systems.

Change

With these respondents, change seemed "coupled" as in personal/career. Further, some career changes appeared to fall into Heddesheimer's (1976) category of a self-determined career, that is changes resulting from an internal motivation to change for more interesting work, more challenge, or economic gain versus an external/environmental pressure forcing change.

Examples: A 39-year-old speech therapist now trained as a mediator said of her career change, "I had a friend who went through a tough divorce which was mediated. I am interested in communication and how people communicate. I had been doing speech therapy for 15 years and was looking for a professional change. Mediation is a refocusing of my interest in communication. Success comes earlier than with speech patients. I like the different kind of feedback."

A 39-year-old former psychiatric nurse now in her third year of self employment doing counseling, education, and consulting said, "I have had an amazing transition. I was associated with the College of Nursing and for two years that was my major job and I did my private practice on the side. I then reached a decision that said nothing else must get in my way; I must make my private practice happen. It evolved over the past three years to really make it my major thrust." When asked if becoming self-employed was a significant change she responded, "Yes, yes. An entrepreneur, a big, big change! Especially in nursing, there is the socialization, and the female socialization as well, to work for somebody and not take the risk or to have the doctor over you. That's been my background. A big change and it culminated in the last three years...of me individuating. That's a psychotherapy term but it was a matter of me really getting clear that I can control my life."

A 38-year-old recently divorced woman illustrates the self-directed accommodation career in which an individual shapes career change in face of environmental pressures but with goals in mind and with success in coping with environmental pressures. This respondent had never worked for pay on a full-time basis. She had been a part-time faculty member at a major university and a working artist. She said, "My divorce was a major change. It was wonderful. It allowed me to find out who I am. It allowed me to decide about my career and what I wanted to do with my life--professionally, personally, all ways. I had no restraints on my work, on what I wanted to do."

Risk

Risk taking and changes were investigated. Respondents were asked what was involved in risking per se and what learning, if any, occurred as a consequence of taking risks. From this financial risk emerged as a repeated theme along with the willingness to take personal and professional risks.

Examples: A 38-year-old woman who had been an outstanding teacher all of her working life and who left teaching for a job in public relations stated, "The risk was in sticking my neck out and eight months later I lost my job due to budget cuts. But I never considered falling on my face. Of course, there was financial risk because my salary was lower and I lost my insurance coverage." Other risks were, "The change of pace and the balance of my family life. I had previously traveled to and from school with my husband (also a teacher), and we had all of our after-school hours together. There were changes in my weekends and in my leisure. I used to say, 'Sure, we'll do it' and later I had to say, 'I'll check my work schedule.'"

Moreover, the respondents indicated that positive growth had resulted from taking these risks. The above teacher said, "I'd do it again tomorrow, even knowing I'd lose my job. I grew from it. I learned I was a successful woman. I learned that teaching mattered. Also, I made wonderful friendships. I'm a better, stronger person. And finally I realized I could, indeed, do other things."

A former public prosecutor who successfully ran for judge discussed the risks involved in that decision. "I chose to go in a direction that may mean I have to give up a friendship. What I mean is that as a single person I have no built-in support system. As I grow, a friend may not grow in the same area. I may have to let go to achieve the goals I personally want." She also mentioned the sacrifice of peer support from other attorneys because in her view the bench does not allow close relationships with members of the bar. She saw different risks in her decisions made from the bench. "I might antagonize someone who comes before the bench and the consequences of my decisions may come later on." Interestingly, she mentioned this rather casually even though it was known to the interviewer that she had been threatened by a mentally ill person on the day of the interview. She went on to say, however, "My successes have come about as a result of risk taking. Without risk, doors to opportunity would have closed, and I would never have been able to achieve half of what I've done."

Similarly risk taking was displayed by a 42-year-old who was internationally acclaimed in her area of expertise and who gave up a tenured, full professorship at a major university and a guaranteed income to pursue writing on a full-time basis. She reported that she "got hooked on the exhiliration that goes with risk." A nurse specialist who left the West coast because of dissatisfaction with city life and with the limited orthopedic focus of the rehabilitation center in which she worked described her move to a medium-sized city in the Southwest to pursue a more holistic approach to her work. She poignantly recounted her hindsight assessment of the risks involved in change, of being unknown, and of being a pioneer. She thought to herself that "it would take years to establish myself. I have no peers as a nurse specialist. My area of specialty is unknown and no one has an interest in it. Would I be able to set up collaborative relationships with physicians? Will I be perceived as an expert?"

Supports/Constraints

Every respondent has a steady, reliable support system. The spouse or partner was mentioned by all who have one. With all but one exception, close and trusted friends were identified as part of support systems. Family members, either parents or siblings, were also frequently cited in this context. A 41-year-old administrator in a women's health center serving American Indian and Hispanic clientele said that "my mate of eight years and my women friends encouraged me not to be afraid" when she made the decision to take the position at a salary reduction because she wanted to deal with social issues. During the course of the study this respondent was diagnosed as having cancer and underwent surgery and radiation treatment. Individuals in her support system drove her long distances to and from her treatment sessions on a daily basis, often reading aloud to her as she underwent treatment. Others who did not live nearby were in constant touch to help sustain her with their care and concern during this critical period.

These support networks are not necessarily characterized by geographical closeness of the individuals nor are they limited to women. A respondent who lives on the West Coast but travels extensively on business always plans her business travel to include contact with important support people.

Few constraints against risk taking and change were identified by respondents. When speaking of her "old" inhibitors, the former psychiatric nurse identified "Me--not wanting to take responsibility for my own self." The 34-year-old vice-president discussed her exploration regarding the possibility of returning to school with a goal of becoming a professional engineer and identified time as a constraint. "Time in my marriage. I need to discover a balance with time." A physician referred to her timidity about moving to another teaching hospital for career advancement purposes as an internal constraint.

Childlessness

Five respondents spontaneously mentioned that their childlessness was viewed by them as a factor supporting change. One spoke of her decision to be independent and to meet her own needs first, knowing the choice meant having no family. "I recognized a quality in myself to give all to a project and that would have meant sacrificing a family to my career." Another said of her refocused career interests, "I never could have made these changes if I had children. When they gave out parenting interests, I didn't get any." However, not just these two respondents but others talked of their direct or indirect influence on the children of others. For example, the judge was gratified to see her judicial decisions having positive results with children who come before the court. She is also very active with youth groups in her church and as chairperson of the hospital board took a strong leadership role which led to upgraded equipment and services for pediatric care. The artist/educator spoke with satisfaction about the indirect, positive influence she has on children through her teaching of art methods to elementary education majors. The nurse specialist whose expertise is with congenital, life-threatening birth defects said, "I have helped others parent children. That's my role in life."

The respondents in the study group are childless by choice. Only one, a divorced 38-year-old attorney, talked about her unresolved feelings about being childless. She said, "I am still learning to identify myself as a single person. There is no longer the certainty of a husband and there is the possibility that I won't have children. I don't perceive this as a natural state." However, she has an exclusive relationship with a man who has children from several marriages and who is not interested in additional parenting responsibilities.

Many of the respondents said the value systems of their formative years created for them what they characterized as stereotypical expectations for marriage and families. Some added their early expectations for their working lives included only three traditional role possibilities: nurse, secretary, or teacher. While their histories created this sterotype, it seems neither to have inhibited their career choices nor in some cases their career changes.

Other Characteristics

These respondents had several other things in common. For example, being responsible for their own physical and emotional health is a value shared by and acted upon by each one. Four discussed the special significance of the purchase of their own home in terms of creating a well-deserved nesting place. Seven clearly made some career changes for "training purposes" to acquire, refine, or enhance skills while being paid to learn. Having clearly defined and often imaginative learning projects seemed characteristic of the group, whether the goal was information/knowledge for its own sake or for professional growth. Finely honed problem-solving and decision-making skills consciously applied to personal concerns was another shared characteristic. The surgeon noted, "There's a problem-solving component, an analytic component in me. I know how to be a problem solver. Surgeons are proactive so I look at my life and do it. I was 'the doctor' in looking at myself. Making decisions and doing decisions is the only way I know."

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Self-Directed Education: A Conceptual Analysis

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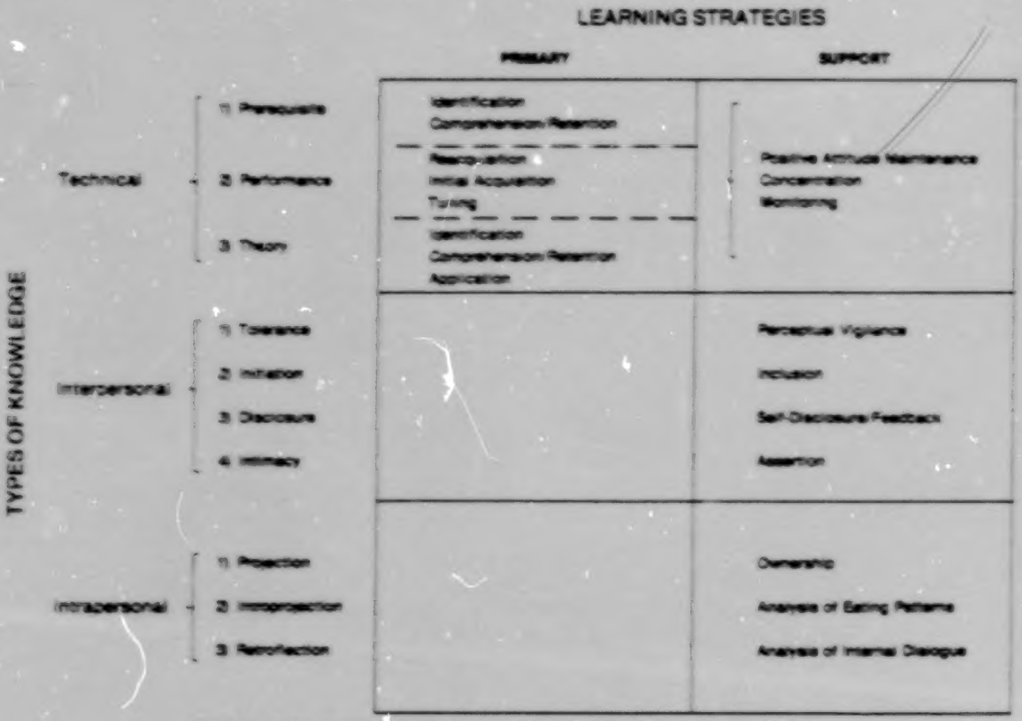
INTRODUCTION

"Self-directed learning" is an oft-discussed phenomenon seen to be central to the "learning society". There is little hope of satisfying all adult learning needs in institutional settings; thus "self-directedness" is touted as a mechanism or phenomenon to be encouraged. Unfortunately, it is poorly conceived and, in some respects, is little more than a slogan or exhortation. At present, "self-directed learning" appears to be a label attached to a broad array of phenomena and yet, even the most casual observation suggests"self-directed" learners employ different "strategies" when pursuing different types of knowledge. The purpose of this paper is to identify the best strategies for learners involved with different "types of knowledge".

FRAMEWORK

Figure 1 lists exercises and techniques designed to foster the learning of different types of knowledge. The framework is meant to alert users of self-directed "learning" literature to the notion it may not be a unitary process. Rather, strategies employed to "learn" in a self-directed manner probably vary as a function of what is being learned. In particular, we may distinguish "primary" from "support" strategies. Figure 1 lists exercises and techniques to be employed as part of a "primary" or "support" strategy for the learning of technical, interpersonal or intrapersonal knowledge.



TYPES OF KNOWLEDGE		LEARNING STRATEGIES: PRIMARY	LEARNING STRATEGIES: SUPPORT
Technical	1) Prerequisite	Identification Comprehension/Retention	Positive Attitude Maintenance Concentration Monitoring
	2) Performance	Reacquisition Initial Acquisition Tuning	
	3) Theory	Identification Comprehension/Retention Application	
Interpersonal	1) Tolerance		Perceptual Vigilance
	2) Initiation		Inclusion
	3) Disclosure		Self-Disclosure/Feedback
	4) Intimacy		Assertion
Intrapersonal	1) Projection		Ownership
	2) Introprojection		Analysis of Eating Patterns
	3) Retroflection		Analysis of Internal Dialogue

Figure 1 Framework for Classifying Learning Strategies and Types of Knowledge

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The term self-directed education is used to denote settings in which learners implement actions which systematically establish and maintain conditions contributing to the achievement of learning objectives. They are their own mentors. The learning process involves the utilization of learning strategies, the outcome is a more or less permanent change in human disposition or capability. The results of fortu-

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itous and intentional learning are often accumulated and described as self-directed learning. This untidy accumulation of learning achievements only obscures an understanding of self-directed education. Learning strategies may or may not be apparent to a learner. Indeed many learners learn as a consequence of haphazard reinforcement of which they are not aware. This lack of awareness limits learner's abilities in situations requiring new strategies nevertheless, self-directed education as defined above is a process that can be learned by anyone and can even be taught in the formal instructional setting.

"Learning strategies" can be categorized as being "primary" used to operate directly on materials to be learned, or "support"-those used to maintain a suitable internal psychological climate (Dansereau, 1978). Dispositions or competencies to be acquired by learners are categorized as technical, interpersonal and intrapersonal knowledge. Technical knowledge is the ability to use logically derived information for instrumental purposes. Often referred to as vertical thinking, paradigmatic or competency based, this type of learning represents the practical technical skills necessary for everyday living activities. Interpersonal knowledge consists of dispositions that enhance personal communication with others. This type of learning represents social abilities that allow one to function as a socially integrated and responsible person. Intrapersonal knowledge is the ability to examine one's own metaprograms for thinking. This knowledge constitutes a foundation for personal growth and development. For the basis of this typology see Habermas (1971) and Mezirow (1985).

The above definition, assumptions and typologies open up possibilities for conceptualizing relationships between learning strategies and types of knowledge. Attention is now turned to primary strategies and types of knowledge.

PRIMARY LEARNING STRATEGIES

Efficient acquisition, use and understanding of technical knowledge involves identifying important, difficult and unfamiliar portions of the subject matter to be learned, applying techniques to comprehend and retain it, recalling and using the knowledge in a variety of situations and developing understanding that will nourish novel problem solving capacity. Primary learning strategies are directed toward the acquisition of three types of technical knowledge-prerequisite, performance and theory (upper right cell of Figure 1).

Performance skills represent practical capacities used in day-to-day activities. This can be understood with an example from nursing. Prerequisite knowledge represents the acquisition of procedures necessary for performance such as being able to identify scrubbing for surgery procedures. Theory represents the capacity to explain why an event or phenomenon occurs and by so doing enhance a learner's problem-solving ability. In the case of the operating room nurse, being able to explain the phenomenon of ascepsis. Each type of technical knowledge requires its own set of primary learning strategies.

Prerequisite Knowledge Strategies

Acquiring prerequisite knowledge involves identification of difficult and unfamiliar portions of the material to be learned and the application of techniques for comprehension and retention.

Accurate identification of difficult and unfamiliar portions of material is necessary if the learner is to allocate time and energy appropriately. First, the names of categories, procedures or objects are located, in the nursing instance "prepare for scrub, wash hands and arms, clean nails and rinse, scrub with brush, scrub with surgical sponge, rinse hands and dry hands". Next the learner must locate descriptions of each of the categories, procedures or objects. Identifying material to be learned is a strategy in itself, relating to the apprehension phase of learning. It is distinct from comprehension/retention strategies dealing with remembering.

Having selected the material to be learned, the learner must next find an efficient way to represent it in long-term memory. Specific coding strategies such as prescriptions, the memorizing of procedures; narratives, the establishment of context in terms of a stream of events or an episode; and images, the visual representation of entities, can be acquired. Summarizing the results of using three comprehension strategies, Rigney (1978) maintains the acquisition of prerequisite knowledge occurs by transformation through internal representational systems-verbal-perceptual-imaginal-into propositional form stored in long-term memory. Attention is now turned to strategies for acquiring performance capacities.

Performance Strategies

Strategies for acquiring performance capacities involve being able to link incoming with previously stored material in order to practice a to-be-learned skill thereby tuning it to a desired level of proficiency. They include: reacquisition of prerequisite knowledge, the rehearsal of previously acquired knowledge; initial acquisition, the coding and retrieval of the performance skill; and refinement, the tuning of the skill through feedback. Each is treated separately and based on a particular phase of learning. In the case of the nursing example the first strategy is to consciously review prerequisite knowledge before attempting to use the information for the first time. Reviewing the information is not difficult, rather remembering to do it and refraining from trying to immediately use it is difficult.

Initial acquisition involves searching out a demonstration of the skill. If the prior rehearsal strategy has been implemented the learner will recognize the components of the skill. To this point a learner has rehearsed prerequisite knowledge and, to some degree, observed a demonstration of the performance.

When the skill to be practiced includes no new motor capabilities, the timing of initial attempts is at the whim of the learner. When the skill to be acquired involves acquisition of a new motor capacity the learner must "practice" immediately after observing the demonstrator. Although at first glance this strategy may seem unduly elaborate. The costs of not employing it are far greater because it is difficult to unlearn inappropriate motor skills (e.g. a golf hook). Up to this point consideration has been given to the acquisition of a capacity at a rudimentary performance level. The last strategy involves fine tuning the performance.

To say that a person possesses a capacity such as "scrubbing for surgery" infers that an individual can scrub correctly in a wide range of situations. In order for the learner to ensure that the capacity itself is acquired rather than a situation-specific behavioural manifestation, opportunities to perform with feedback should be pursued. Often situations to practice are available but go undedected because learners are unaware of the difference between a specific behaviour representing the capacity and the skill itself. Tuning is achieved through practice and is the final phase of performance learning. The next segment of technical knowledge for which strategies are considered is theory.

Theory Strategies

The acquisition of theory involves a search for the definition of the phenomenon to be explained and a description of fundamental principles, elements and assumptions. Secondly an image of the relationships among the elements of knowledge and finally the use of the theoretical knowledge to explain a given instance of the phenomenon.

Identifying important, difficult and unfamiliar theoretical knowledge to be learned is just as critical and presents many of the same problems encountered during the acquisition of prerequisite knowledge. Initial reading of the material involves searching for a definition that will encompass process, structure and outcome as fundamental elements of theoretical understanding; in the nursing example an understanding of the principles of ascepsis. The essence of this strategy is to read the material as one normally would but, in addition, be alert for a definition encompassing structure, process and outcome. All the information that would normally flow into short and long-term memory does so but, in addition, the definition is located and subsequently memorized.

The search for fundamental principles, elements and assumptions occurs concurrently with that for a definition. The idea is to reduce rather than elaborate the content. Ideally, the principles will be related to each of the notions of process, structure and outcome. The ability to locate this information becomes refined over numerous practice trials. It is important to note, as was the case in the acquisition of prerequisite knowledge, locating the knowledge is a separate endeavour from coding it.

The learner describes elements by using prescriptions, narrations and images. If a visual analogue of the theory is presented the learner merely has to acquire it. If not presented, an image must be created to enhance retrieval.

To ensure theoretical knowledge has been acquired, the learner should take an instance of the event for which the theory stands and explain it using the theoretical principles. It may seem reasonable to assume that having implemented the previous strategies one automatically has the capacity to use the theory. This may not be the case particularly when a learner is first attempting to use the strategy. By testing the use of the theory the learner is determining the ability to use it and the adequacy of the particular version of the theory acquired.

SUPPORT STRATEGIES

These strategies help develop and maintain an optimal internal psychological environment for learning. Whereas primary strategies facilitate processing of technical knowledge, support strategies enhance interpersonal communication and provide a basis for individuals to examine their own learning metaprograms. Separate support strategies are thought to apply to technical, interpersonal and intrapersonal knowledge.

Support Strategies for Technical Knowledge

Primary strategies for the acquisition of technical knowledge are supported through maintaining a positive attitude, concentrating on the material to be acquired and monitoring their effectiveness. Positive learning attitudes are cultivated and maintained through such strategies as positive self-talk (Dansereau, 1978) and meditation (Naranjo & Ornstein, 1971). Concentration is enhanced by rational-emotive (Ellis, 1963) and attention-studying (Tart, 1971) techniques (upper right cell of Figure 1).

Monitoring the effectiveness of primary learning strategies is a type of formative evaluation. A learner can devise exercises to ensure that each learning task has been achieved. The technique resembles the systematic design and management of instruction where a learner is "motivated" to learn the task, given guidance on how to do it and an opportunity to practice it. In the nursing example, the tasks of locating the scrubbing procedures, acquiring descriptions of them and using these descriptions to identify the procedures are each done independently and checked so as to ensure their achievement. Strategies for interpersonal learning are of a different order.

Support Strategies for Interpersonal Knowledge

Earlier, interpersonal knowledge was defined as the dispositions that enhance personal communication with others that promote social integration and responsibility. Strategies for acquiring necessary dispositions are based on the notion of communication as a process in which participants create and share information with one another in order to reach a mutual understanding (Habermas, 1971; Rogers & Kincaid, 1981). This ideal speech situation can be promoted through an effective communicator model (Macrae, 1979) based on the assumption that interpersonal relationships can evolve through successive stages of tolerance, initiation, disclosure and intimacy. Communication skills posited for each stage can support the acquisition of interpersonal knowledge (middle right cell of Figure 1).

Initially a relationship is impersonal and referred to as "closed". The disposition thought to most facilitate communication at this stage is tolerance. The ability to accept the beliefs, traits or behaviour of others and not take responsibility for them is empathy. It is a form of perceptual vigilance or social intelligence that can be learned.

The next stage of communication is "semi-closed". This involves the transition from an impersonal to a more personal level. The disposition thought to enhance this stage is initiation. Incorporated in this disposition is the ability to develop a supportive communication climate, invite the inclusion of a person in a relationship and establish a dialogue.

"Semi-open", the third stage, is when the relationship grows more personal and people become more open about themselves, more self-disclosing. Disclosure, the critical strategy for this stage, is composed of self-disclosure and feedback used to help develop a relationship characterized by mutual trust, caring and commitment.

"Open", the fourth stage of interpersonal communication marks the movement of a personal relationship to a state of intimacy. The related disposition or strategy here is assertion, the ability to communicate thought, feelings, needs and preferences openly and honestly, in a manner appropriate to the relationship and situation. It is a communication skill in intimate relationships where openness and honesty serve as cornerstones for growth and development. It is a skill and, like any other, can be learned by anyone willing to invest sufficient time and effort.

Support Strategies for Intrapersonal Knowledge

The acquisition of intrapersonal knowledge can be likened to altering states of consciousness. Knowledge gained through the examination of one's learning metaprograms involves the translation of unacknowledged causal conditions of action derived from repressions, into accessible self-understanding.

Intrapersonal knowledge makes it possible for learners to achieve rational control over influences that previously dominated their conduct. Mezirow (1985) refers to the acquisition of intrapersonal knowledge as a process of learning through meaning transformation involving either a particular meaning scheme or a cluster, set or structure of meaning schemes.

In this framework gestalt techniques (Perls, Goodman & Hefferline, 1951) are posited as learning strategies for exploring the horizons of meaning that lie behind subjective consciousness. They provide learners with specific avenues for uncovering repressed experiences that inhibit the development of wider meaning perspectives. Habitual mechanisms for repression that have slipped out of consciousness such as projection, introjection and retroflection can be brought back and examined through the support learning strategies of gestalt techniques (lower right cell of Figure 1).

Projections, the repression of experiences by casting them out in the environment can be reclaimed through ownership exercises. Sentences where "it" is the subject and "you" the object can be translated back into sentences where "I" is the subject thereby claiming responsibility for reality. "It" expressions can be translated to visual fantasy revealing repressed experiences. For example, the expression "the thought struck me" can be translated by asking questions such as, where and how did it strike? What weapon did it use and who would you like to strike? All the items in a dream can be reclaimed by initially capturing in writing portions of it in the present tense, and then substituting I for the personal pronouns and "I of me" for nouns.

Introjections, experiences that have not been fully assimilated can be brought to consciousness for purposes of rexamination through concentration on eating. Although meals have become for the most part social occasions, it is possible to set aside one meal a day to eat in solitude. Resistances to addressing food, inadequate chewing, indifference, impatience, greed, disgust and other reactions become the basis for processing repressed experiences. Typical questions to be raised are: Do you feel greed? Impatience? Disgust? Do you blame the pace of modern life for gulping of meals? Is it different when you have leisure? Do you avoid food that is flat and tasteless, or do you just down it without demurring? When it is not a matter of physical but of mental food, how does the matter stand? Do you skip over hard paragraphs or do you work them through?

Retroflections, the mechanism for suppressing emotions by turning them inward upon the self, are within fairly easy reach of awareness and can be directly experienced. Dealing with them does not depend upon guessed-at interpretations rather the direction of the reflecting act is merely reversed from inward to outward. Exercises for bringing retroflections to awareness include reversals as a means of analyzing internal dialogue. For example when asking what do you doubt about yourself? Mistrust? Deprecate? Reverse these attitudes. Who is the person whom you doubt? Who makes you suspicious? Whom do you wish to take down a peg? There are an integrated series of exercises for each of the mechanisms for repression. The examples are presented for illustrative purposes.

CONCLUSION

The results of the analysis firstly distinguished "primary" from "support" learning strategies and provided examples of each. A second and more important result showed which learning strategy is best-suited to each of the "types of knowledge" identified by Habermas. It was concluded that the differentiation of "self-directed" education implicit in the distinction between primary and support strategies, advanced knowledge in this area. The kind of scrutiny given "self-directed" education in this project must be continued if its proponents are serious about its future contributions to learning. In other words, instead of conceiving of "self-directed" education as an undifferentiated, somewhat illusory phenomenon, it will be necessary to examine its conceptual foundations. This project was a contribution to what is hoped will become a discernible research tradition in adult education.

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Age and Sex Correlates of Value Orientations and Locus of Control in Adult Learners

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to describe the relationship between Value Orientations and Locus of Control orientations of adult learners. Demographic information and data from Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale and Rokeach's Value Survey were gathered from 413 adult learners in a university. The results showed that LOC orientations shifted as age increased and that males were more internally oriented than females. Significant age trends and sex differences were observed for both terminal and instrumental values as tested by the Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance by ranks. Partial correlations of terminal and instrumental value rankings with Locus of Control scores controlled for age and sex showed that more internally oriented persons valued "self-respect," "wisdom," "freedom," and "a sense of accomplishment," while externally oriented persons valued "family security," "a comfortable life," "national security," and "salvation."

Historically people have used institutions of higher learning as a means of initial career preparation and generally for social mobility. In recent years numbers of adult learners have turned to universities for career enhancement, career 're-tooling' and/or preparation for entrance to higher positions within their own agencies and institutions.

On the whole, one would assume that these returning adults of varying ages would reflect differences in their value orientations and in their sense of self-sufficiency and/or self-reliance as compared to younger learners. Observation of university faculties suggest, however, that they do not make any significant distinction between the age levels of adult learners nor of their greater sense of self-directedness in learning nor of their value differences. That is, all learners are perceived as "kids" who need to be taught the content irrespective of any individual differences they may possess.

To what degree is that a valid assumption? Should faculty pay more attention to differences in age, self-reliance and value orientation of

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adult learners who are becoming more prominant in their classes? To date answers to these questions have not been systematically studied for adult learners.

The literature on adult development suggests the idea that as age increases there is an internal orientation shift in perceived self-control and values (Levison, 1978; Gould, 1978; and Knoop, 1981).

Researchers primarily concerned with issues of personal control and self-reliance have tended to approach the issue from the theoretical basis of social learning theory (Rotter, 1966; Phares, 1976; Lefcourt, 1982, 1983). This theoretical perspective stresses the belief that behaviors are determined simultaneously by the variables of expectancy and reinforcement value. Specifically, these researchers have stressed the idea of Locus of Control (LOC) which refers to the belief about the causal relationship between behavior and the subsequent occurence of a reinforcement. External control refers to a belief that fate, luck, chance, or powerful others mediate the causal relationship. Internal control refers to the belief that the occurrence of reinforcements are contingent upon one's own behavior.

Additionally, research by Rokeach (1973) has shown that there are developmental patterns in values with the aging process. More specifically, Rokeach (1979) described two main types of values: terminal or ends values and instrumental or mean values. Terminal values refer to goals that are worth striving toward (e.g., freedom and equality), while instrumental values refer to conceptions of desirable modes of behavior that help to attain valued outcomes (e.g., honesty and responsibility).

What has not been studied systematically is the relationship that may exist between Locus of Control and values of adults who use the university as a means of mid-career professional development, career change, and/or re-entry into the work force. Accordingly, the purpose of this study was to describe the relationship between Locus of Control and Value Orientations of adult learners in a large urban university.

Specifically, the following research questions guided this research:

1. What are the LOC orientations of adult learners in a university setting and is there a shift in LOC to a more internal orientation as age increases?
2. Do males and females have different LOC orientations?
3. What are the values of adult learners in a university setting and do value priorities shift as age increases?
4. Do males and females have different value priorities?
5. What is the relationship that exists between sex, age, LOC, and values of adult learners in a university setting?

METHOD

The study was delimited to undergraduate and graduate students ranging in age from 18 years to over 50. Subjects were enrolled in education programs at Virginia Commonwealth University in Richmond during the 1983-1984 academic year. There were 413 subjects (337 females and 76 males) in the final sample.

Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale was used as one of the instruments. This instrument, developed by Rotter (1966), consisted of 23 question pairs and used a forced-choice format plus six filler questions. The Rotter IE scale has been judged appropriate for use with college educated adult subjects (Lefcourt, 1981).

Rokeach's Value Survey was the second instrument used. This instrument consisted of 18 alphabetically listed terminal values listed on one page and 18 alphabetically listed instrumental values listed on a second page. Subjects rank order each list of values according to the relative importance of each value to themselves.

A three part survey comprising demographic data plus the two instruments were given to full-time instructors to distribute to their on and off-campus classes. Part I requested demographic data including items such as age, sex, teaching experience, marital status, and proposed teaching level. Part II consisted of Rotter's IE Locus of Control Scale and Part III included Rokeach's Value Survey (Form D). Subjects were asked to take the questionnaires home, complete and return them via a self-addressed envelope. There were 413 useable questionnaires returned for data analysis. This represented slightly more than a 50% return rate and was deemed appropriate for this pilot investigation. The data presented herein represent the first phase of a proposed five year study of adult students in various professional schools within the university.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Question one asked what are the LOC orientations of adult learners and if there was a shift in LOC to a more internal orientation as age increased. Question two asked if males and females have different LOC orientations. Table 1 displays the data for these two questions respectively. On the Rotter IE scale the lower the score the more internally oriented a subject is. In this sample, the older age groups showed descending mean scores. The analysis of variance suggested that as age increased the more internally oriented the subject were. This result is consistent with that of Knoop (1981). This generalization holds true except for age group 45-49 whose mean score was 8.29, just under that of the 35-39 age group (M=8.30). However, the generalization is still valid since in most other studies, a mean score below 8.50 is considered an internal orientation on an IE scale that runs from 1-23. Thus, it should be noted that, for this study, most of the subjects in this sample from a School of Education were internally oriented but that the older students were more so.

The data also showed that male LOC mean scores were lower than female mean scores in this sample. Thus while both males and females tended toward the internal orientation, the males were significantly more so. Similar results were reported by McNeill and Jacobs (1980).

Question three addressed the value priorities of adult learners in a university setting and asked whether or not there was a shift in priorities as age increased. Question four addressed the issue of whether or not males and females have different value priorities. The seven age groups were collapsed into three age categories for statistical purposes.

Table 1. Locus of Control Mean Scores By Age and Sex

Age	N	Mean	SD	Number and Percentage of Subjects with LOC of 8 or Less	
18–22	100	10.69	4.17	32	32.0
23–29	107	8.79	3.89	52	48.6
30–34	70	8.40	3.98	36	51.4
35–39	56	8.30	3.82	34	60.7
40–44	40	7.80	3.41	24	60.0
45–49	17	8.29	4.03	10	58.9
50+	23	7.74	4.27	13	56.5

F(6 ,406) = 4.73, p < .0001

Sex	N	Mean	SD	Number and Percentage of Subjects with LOC of 8 or Less	
Males	76	7.82	3.50	45	59.2
Females	337	9.20	4.12	156	46.3

F(1 ,411) = 7.38, p < .007

The mean rankings of Terminal Values for males and females across three age categories (18-22 yrs., 23-37 yrs., over 39) were analyzed by means of the Kruskal-Wallis Analysis of Variance by Ranks.

For the terminal values only "True Friendship" showed a significant age trend for both males and females (KW = 23.06, p < .001). The youngest males ranked it first while the oldest males ranked it tenth. Females displayed the same trend, viz., the youngest females ranked it second and the oldest females ranked it eighth.

It should be noted that for males and females across all age groups there were no statistically significant differences for the values "Self-Respect," "Family Security," and "Freedom." That is, they were the most highly ranked values for this sample. "Self-Respect" and "Family Security" were also reported as high value priorities for males and females by Linder and Bauer (1983).

There were several significant trends across age for the instrumental values. "Forgiving" became less important for older females (KW = 18.21, p < .003). Conversely, older females ranked the value "Independent" as more important than did the younger females (KW = 15.40, p < .009). This trend in value shifts across age was also true for females on the values Intellectual (KW = 21.08, p < .001), Capable (KW = 30.86, p < .001), and Logical (KW = 25.45, p < .001). Rokeach (1973) reported that for the value "Capable," people in their forties tended to rank it as more important than younger persons. The findings in this study are consistent with those of Rokeach.

The values "Responsible" and "Honest" were highly ranked by males and females across all age groups. That is, there were no statistically significant differences for these values.

Question four asked whether or not there were value differences between males and females. The mean rankings of terminal values showed that "A Comfortable Life" was ranked sixth by the oldest males while it was ranked thirteenth by the youngest females (KW = 13.43, p < .019). Males over 39 valued it more importantly than did females over 39. This same finding was observed for the value A Sense of Accomplishment (KW = 14.05, p < .015). Other significant differences in value priorities were observed between males and females for the values A World of Beauty (KW = 11.92, p < .035), Equality (KW = 11.81, p < .037), and True Friendship (KW = 23.06, p < .001).

The mean rankings of instrumental values showed several statistically significant differences between males and females. For example, "Capable" was ranked third by the oldest males, seventh by the middle male age group, and only twelfth by the youngest females (KW = 30.86, p < .001).

"Intellectual" was ranked in fifth position by males 23-39, however, it was ranked thirteenth by 18-22 year old females (KW = 21.08, p < .001). This is consistent with Crandall and Crandall's (1983) findings which suggest that young adult females do not value "intellectual" as much as younger males. This may be a result of female socialization and cultural demands that place more emphasis on social and interpersonal relationships. The sex difference for the value "Logical" was the same as that observed for the value Intellectual (KW = 25.45, p < .001).

There were also statistically significant differences between males and females for the values Loving (KW = 23.90, p < .001), Obedient (KW = 26.40, p < .001), Polite (KW = 25.81, p < .001), and Self-Controlled (KW = 22.19, p < .001). It should be noted that no significant differences between males and females occurred for the values "Responsible" and "Honest." Both sexes highly ranked these values.

Question five asked what relationship existed between sex, age, LOC, and values of adult learners in a university setting. Partial correlations of terminal value rankings with LOC scores controlled for age and sex are displayed in Table 2 (Quade, 1974). A positive correlation showed that the more internal one was the more one tended to subscribe to that value. Conversely, a negative correlation meant that the more external one was the more one subscribed to that value.

The data indicated that more internally oriented persons valued "Self-Respect," "Wisdom," "Freedom" and "A Sense of Accomplishment." While the correlations were not strong, the p values indicated a trend toward a positive relationship between LOC and these terminal values. Conversely, more externally oriented persons valued "Family Security," "A Comfortable Life," "National Security" and "Salvation." Again the p values suggested a trend to support these findings.

Partial correlations of instrumental value rankings with LOC scores when controlled for age and sex are shown in Table 3. The data indicated that more internally oriented persons valued "Intellectual," "Logical," "Polite," "Honest," "Ambitious," and "Independent" modes of behavior. These findings are

Table 2. Partial Correlations of Terminal Value Rankings With Locus of Control Scores Controlling For Age and Sex

Value	Partial Correlation	P-Value
Self-Respect	.071	.064
Wisdom	.069	.086
Freedom	.062	.094
A Sense of Accomplishment	.060	.100
A World of Beauty	.048	.198
True Friendship	.026	.529
Inner Harmony	.024	.491
Equality	.020	.598
Mature Love	.018	.631
Social Recognition	.009	.821
An Exciting Life	−.009	.814
A World of Peace	−.010	.785
Happiness	−.019	.631
Pleasure	−.029	.454
Salvation	−.042	.278
National Security	−.047	.212
A Comfortable Life	−.071	.064
Family Security	−.077	.048

Note: P-value is for a two-tailed test.

Table 3. Partial Correlations of Instrumental Value Rankings With Locus of Control Scores for Age and Sex

Value	Partial Correlation	P-Value
Intellectual	.055	.168
Logical	.038	.350
Polite	.037	.338
Honesty	.021	.580
Ambitious	.017	.655
Imaginative	.015	.695
Independent	.010	.800
Courageous	.008	.824
Responsible	.005	.902
Loving	−.002	.952
Capable	−.007	.850
Forgiving	−.018	.640
Self-Controlled	−.021	.583
Obedient	−.023	.556
Clean	−.025	.509
Helpful	−.035	.386
Broadminded	−.040	.311
Cheerful	−.105	.006

Note: P-value is for a two-tailed test.

consistent with past research depicting internally oriented persons as independent, competent, and intellectual (Crandall and Crandall, 1983).

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER The Salient Childhood Experiences of (AHSN-Cs): An Analysis of the Association With Patterns of Financial Support

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Much of the literature on personality development indicate that the experiences of childhood form an essential link to the identity formation process that people experience during adolescence. Personality difficulties, such as low self-concepts, arise when the experiences of childhood cannot be adequately integrated into the personality structure. The data collected by Martin (1984), from which he produced a typology which characterized the the psychosocial developmental patterns experienced by the 79 subjects he he interviewed, provide the foundation for an indepth analysis of the salient childhood experiences of a broad sample of adult high school non-completers (AHSN-Cs). This paper analyzes Martin's data in order to provide insight into the association between the salient childhood experiences of the subjects and their patterns of financial support as adults.

The four categories of AHSN-Cs identified by Martin (1984) were further refined and expanded to allow the categorization of the entire sample. Eight categories of financial support were produced which allowed the specific categorization of each subject: Entrepreneurs, Superiors, Regulars, Suppliants, Marginals, Underclass-Marginals, Underclass-Regulars, and Underclass-Entrepreneurs. These categories provided the basis for analyzing the extent to which each group was effected by the salient childhood experiences mentioned by the the entire sample. Five types of childhood experiences were mentioned: disruptive family, stigmatizing and catastrophic, benevolent family, interference with school attendance, and uneventful childhoods.

THE SALIENT CHILDHOOD EXPERIENCES OF (AHSN-Cs): AN ANALYSIS OF THE ASSOCIATION WITH PATTERNS OF FINANCIAL SUPPORT

Larry G. Martin*

Introduction

In an attempt to identify the common adult development experiences which bind adult high school non-completers (AHSN-Cs) into a distinctive group and their intragroup stratification, Martin (1984) conducted biographical interviews with 79 AHSN-Cs. The study produced a typology which characterized the psychosocial developmental patterns experienced by the subjects. Martin suggested that several underlying concepts appeared to influence the adult devlopment of the subjects: deviance, self-esteem, setting and achieving goals, and literacy and social awareness. The life experiences of the subjects were categorized into four groups: Entreprenuers, owners of private businesses and (or) high-salaried employees; Regulars, regularly employed blue-collar workers who often enjoyed consistent employment at good wages; marginals, often unemployed welfare recipients; and Underclass, worked actively to sustain themselves through deviant and often illegal means.

Much of the literature on personality development indicate that the experiences of childhood form an essential link to the identity formation process that people experience during adolescence. Personality difficulties, such as low self-concepts, arise when the experiences of childhood cannot be adequately integrated into the personality structure. The data collected by Martin (1984) provide the foundation for an indepth analysis of the salient childhood experiences of a broad sample of AHSN-Cs. This article analyzes Martin's data in order to provide insight into the association between the salient childhood experiences of the subjects and their patterns of financial support as adults.

Theoretical Perspective

Earnest Becker (1973) illustrated the contributions of childhood experiences to personality development by analyzing the existential nature of human beings as dualistic creatures that thrive on abstract symbols to achieve a sense of self-worth. Since people incessantly fear both life and death, Becker considers them to be literally split in two: "He has an awareness of his own splendid uniqueness in that he sticks out of nature with a towering majesty, and yet he goes back into the ground a few feet in order blindly and dumbly to rot and disappear forever" (E. Becker, 1973, p. 26). The human child is particularly vunerable to this paradoxical relationship between its angel-like mind and its animal body. "The child is overwhelmed by experiences of the dualism of the self and the body from both areas, since he can be master of neither. ...In both halves of his experience he is dispossessed, yet impressions keep pouring in on him, flooding his body. He has to make some kind of sense out of them, establish some kind of ascendancy over them" (E. Becker, 1973, p.28).

To develop the strong personality structure needed to help the child overcome humanity's existential paradox Becker (1973) suggested that a high level of self-esteem is a requisite. This self-esteem is increased, "When one's childhood experiences have been securly life-supporting and warmly enhancing to the sense of self, to the feeling of being really special, truly number one in creation" (p. 22). Satir (1972) reiterated

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Becker's assertions when she described the family unit as a factory and its adult members as "people-makers". She argued that the family is primarily responsible for developing physically healthy, mentally alert, feeling, loving, playful, authenic, creative, productive human beings; who can stand on their own two feet, who can be on equally good terms with both their tenderness and their toughness, know the difference between them and therefore struggle effectively to achieve their goals. She suggested four key factors were most often associated with troubled families: self-worth was low; communication was indirect, vague, and not really honest; rules were rigid, inhuman, nonnegotiable, and everlasting; and the linking to society was fearful, placating and blaming. The reverse was true for nuturing families.

The Research Design

The larger study, by Martin (1984), took fifteen months to complete and entailed conducting two- to three-hour, tape-recorded interwiews with a diverse group of subjects. The research format followed the methodology suggested by Glaser and Strauss (1967). The data were collected from persons living in three U.S. locations: a large Midwestern metropolis of over six million people; a mid-sized Southeastern city of 160,000 people; and several rural Southeastern communities of less than 5,000 persons. The interviewees were recruited from many diverse settings including ABE/GED programs, social service agencies, employment settings, street corners, and homes. All interviewees were asked to address a series of questions regarding their: childhood, schooling, adolescence, young adulthood, family background, current family, employment history, life crises, and others. The interviewees were encouraged to discuss in-depth any experience(s) considered important to their personal development. This article focuses on the subjects' responses to two questions: "What do you remember most about your childhood experiences?" and "Which of these experiences do you think most affected your life?" Through content analysis, the data offered in response to these questions were systematically analyzed and categorized.

Ratings of the Patterns of Financial Support

The four categories of AHSN-Cs identified earlier by Martin (1984) were further refined and expanded to allow the categorization of the entire sample. Eight categories of financial support were produced which appeared to allow the specific categorization of each subject. Three judges were provided: a set of definitions which defined each category; and a one-page summary of each case-history which included information on sixteen primary variables and summary comments. They were asked to categorize each case-history into one of the eight categories. Upon completion of the ratings, all three judges collectively reviewed inconsistent ratings and helped to clarify the definitions of the categories. The final ratings represent the unanimous consensus of all three judges. The following categories were produced:

1. Entrepreneurs. Currently employed (or retired), and a history which includes owning a private business, financial success, consistent employment. (A total of 2.53% of the subjects were entrepreneurs.)
2. Superiors. Currently employed (or retired), and a history of consistent employment, increasing job responsibility, supervisory and (or) management

responsibility, and financial success. (A total of 3.80% of the subjects were Superiors.)
3. *Regulars.* Currently employed (or retired), and a history of consistent employment, periodic unemployment, little or no public assistance, currently not receiving public assistance. (A total of 17.72% of the subjects were Regulars.)
4. *Suppliants.* Currently unemployed (or retired), and a history of inconsistent employment and (or) being supported by someone who earns a wage, such as a spouse, relative, etc., little or no public assistance, and currently not receiving public assistance. (A total of 35.44% of the subjects were Suppliants.)
5. *Marginals.* Current recipient of public assistance or supported by someone who is a recipient of public assistance, consistent unemployment to the extent of applying for and receiving public assistance. (A total of 29.11% of the subjects were Marginals.)
6. *Underclass-Marginals.* Current recipient of public assistance or supported by someone who is a recipient of public assistance, a history of consistent criminal activities, and (or) the use or abuse of illicit drugs, or the abuse of alcohol. (8.86% of the subjects were Underclass-Marginals.)
7. *Underclass-Regulars.* Can be legally employed, little or no public assistance, a history of illegal sources of income, and (or) the use or abuse of illicit drugs, or the abuse of alcohol. (2.53% of the subjects were Underclass-Regulars.)
8. *Underclass-Entrepreneurs.* Operates an illegal business through criminal activities, and a history of financial success through an invisible means of support, and (or) the use or abuse of illicit drugs, or the abuse of alcohol. (None of the subjects were Underclass-Entreprenuers.)

The Sample

The sample represents a diverse group of people whose only shared characteristics are that they were born in America and did not complete high school. Of those interviewed, 33 percent were white, 65 percent were black, and two percent were hispanic. The majority (57%) were women. A total of 73 percent were currently enrolled in ABE/GED programs, while 27 percent were not attending a program. Forty-two percent lived in a large city, 34% in a mid-sized city, and 24% in a rural community. Their ages ranged from 17 to 72 with an average age of 33.

Findings and Data Analysis

The Family Backgrounds of the Subjects

A disportionatly large percentage of the subjects grew up in family environments that differed substantially from the two-parent, patriarchal dominant family pattern. Only (21.5%) grew up in two-parent homes in which they were reared by their natural parents. A large majority (78.5%) were brought up by adults who were not the ones who brought them into the world--which compares with a projected national average of 25 to 35 percent of such families (Satir, 1972, p. 170). These individuals became members of either reconsituted (blended) two-parent families from remarriages (15.2%), lived with grandparents (15.2%), relatives (3.8%), or foster parents (2.5%); or a one-parent family in which they were brought up either by a mother (34.2%) or a father (7.6%).

As evidenced by the above figures, a large majority of the subjects grew up in homes in which their parents either experienced marital upset or were never married. Only (21.5%) lived in homes in which the parents remained married until they reached age 18. The portions were equal (30.4%) for those whose parents were either "divorced" or "widowed". Smaller portions (11.4% and 6.3%) grew up in homes where their parents were either "never married" or permanently "separated".

Salient Childhood Experiences

The majority of the subjects (35%) indicated that their parents' marital disruption and (or) other disruptive family experiences greatly effected them. Stigmatizing and catastrophic experiences were the primary concern of (34%), while (23%) reported benevolent family experiences. A smaller porportion (14%) reported experiences that directly interfered with school attendance and (9%) did not recall anything special about their childhoods.

These experiences were not isolated events effecting only one individual at one point in time but were often interrelated with other similar experiences, spanned long periods of time, and involved more than one central character. Space limitations will not permit exhaustive case histories of each type of experience; therefore, only limited illustrations are provided.

Disruptive Family Experiences

For 35 percent of the subjects, disruptive family relationships and experiences were considered disruptive in the sense that they were perceived to be major disruptions (or obstacles) in their progressive psychosocial development, and significantly altered the course of their lives. Several types of experiences were identified: parential separation, divorce, or death; alcohol and child abuse by parents; and traveling which entailed transitions to different schools and communities. Disruptive family experiences disproportionately effected the Suppliants (42.22%) as compared with Marginals (22.22%), Underclass-Marginals (13.33%), Regulars (8.89%), and Entrepreneurs, Superiors, and Underclass-Regulars (4.44%) for each category.

Case History Illustration (a Suppliant). John, a 17 year old white male, felt that the passing of both his natural father and his step-mother inalterably changed his life. When he was twelve years old his father died of a heart attack. "That shook me up real bad", he said, and at age fifteen his step-mother committed suicide. "I felt like commiting suicide myself at that time. After that happened, I felt I didn't have anything else to live for. It seemed like everything was going down hill. I was losing girlfriends and friends. It just changed me. After all that happened, I wasn't myself". After the death of his step-mother, John was placed in a foster home, from which he ran away and eventually stayed with his grandparents and later with his natural mother.

Stigmatizing and Catastropic Experiences.

Over one-third of the respondents indicated the experiences most affecting their lives centered around stigmatizing and catastropic events. Stigmatizing events tended to be those which served to discredit the character of the subjects in the minds of others, where as, catastropic events were singular unexpected calamities which took heavy emotional tolls on the individuals. Those experiences identified in this category included: being poor, and enduring hunger and difficult times; being personally engaged in chemical abuse, theft, and (or) gang activities; being teased, for not having cloths, having facial blemishes, etc.; seeing their homes burned, being shot, raped, beaten by gangs, and others. Stigmatizing and catastropic experiences were disproportionately represented in the lives of the Suppliants (38.30%) and the Marginals (23.5%) as compared with the Underclass-Marginals (14.89%), Regulars (12.77%), Superiors (4.26%), and Entrepreneurs (2.13%).

Case History Illustration (a Suppliant). Margarite, a 37 year old white female, explained how a rape at age thirteen motivated her to marry at age fifteen and to withdraw permanently from school. "I was grabbed by a man from a back alley and I was raped. It was terrifying. I guess, when I went back to school all the kids treated me like I was a tramp. They thought I was responsible for what had happened to me, and I just dropped out. I lost interest. I think that even if I hadn't gotten married at that age I would have dropped out. I would have gotten out of the teasing and sarcastic remarks. I just couldn't take it."

Pleasant Family and Home Experiences

A smaller group of subjects (23%) recalled positive experiences encountered in the environments of their homes. These experiences tended to resemble those of nuturing and caring families that provide good home environments for psychosocial growth and development. Such experiences included a caring family, listening to advice, learning, and wrestling around the home with other siblings. Benevolent family environments were experienced primarily by Marginals (36.11%) and Suppliants (30.56%) as compared to Regulars (22.22%), and Underclass-Marginals (8.33%).

Case History Illustration (a Suppliant). Ester, a 42 year old white female, indicated her most salient memories of childhood took her back to a period in which her family lived in the mountains of the Southeast. "When we lived back in the mountains, I felt a lot of freedom. I could feel the wind when walking or sitting on the rocks." She considered her family to be poor, but happy. Their happiness derived from knowing that they cared for each other and that they were loved.

Experiences Effecting Education

Another small group of subjects (14%) identified experiences which effected directly their ability to complete high school. Experiences in this category included events which occur during the life course of most people, but for these subjects they occurred at inopportune times and interfered with their ability to attend school. These experiences included: early marriage and (or) pregnancy; absence from school due to illness and other events which interfered with school attendance. Experiences effecting education were mentioned primarily by Suppliants (44.44%), who were followed by Superiors and Marginals (22.22%), and Entrepreneurs (11.11%).

Case History Illustration (a Suppliant). The tortourous life of

Gurrell, a 25 year old black male , illustrated the disastrous effects an unknown and uncontrollable illness can have on educational goals. He covertly suffered eight years before learning that the condition he experienced was a mental disorder that could be diagnosed and treated. His illness was "agoraphobia", an abnormal fear of crossing (or of being in) open places. It effected him in ways which also caused him to fear being around (or in) groups of people. "It kept me from attaining my goals. It kept me from going to school, graduating, or becoming an athlete on the high school track team. Because I couldn't go to school my grades weren't up to par, and therefore I wasn't able to join the team. Also, because I didn't go to school a lot, I started hanging out and I started drinking with the fellows. It]the alcohol would take away the fear until I became sober again, so I would periodically drink all day, everyday and get high just so I wouldn't feel the way I was feeling around people." Gurrel's illness made normal life for him virtually impossible. He sought treatment at age twenty-three.

Uneventful Childhood Experiences

The smallest group of respondents (9%) indicated that they enjoyed an uneventful childhood. Instead of offering information about their personal experiences they discussed other seemingly unrelated topics. This was interpreted as a sign that they were either sincere about their uneventful childhoods or that they were not yet ready to share their experiences with the interviewer. As the interview progressed, the interviewer looked for clues to bring the subjects back to these questions. Those responses listed within this category represent those subjects who failed throughout the interview to mention salient childhood experiences. Uneventful childhoods were more often mentioned by Regulars (41.67%) and Marginals (33.33%), as compared with Suppliants (16.67%) and Marginal-Underclass (8.33%).

Conclusion

In adult education the resource of highest value is the learner's experience. This study suggests that the adult learners who are the actual and potential clients of literacy programs often experience events and activities as children which effect either directly or indirectly their abilities as adults to sustain themselves through a socially acceptable and "visible" means of financial support. These same types of experiences, if not accepted and integrated into their personality structures, will likely prove to be insurmountable obstacles to their attempts to pursue learning through adult education programs.

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER The Acquisition of Information Resources by Informal Adult Learners

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Purpose: The purpose of this research was to explore the extent to which one constituency in the "learning society" was using the educative potential of mass media, government, organizational and personal networks to support informal learning. The study provided descriptive data on how members of advocacy groups as users of information acquired resources from a wide variety of channels in society; and tested hypothesized interactions between the user, channel, and information variables.

Perspectives and Conceptual Framework: Among the functions fulfilled by adult education is a social activist one which has traditionally taught the skills of democratic participation required by responsible citizens. Contributions from the literature of political sociology, community-level social change, social networks, and information science were used to define a contemporary setting, conceptual framework and research problem within the social activist tradition of adult education.

Methods: User ratings of 32 channels indicated how much information of each of four generic types had been gathered from each channel, and how useful that information had been. Data was submitted to a four-way, mixed effects, multiple analysis of variance using the P8V subprogram of BMD which is adapted for repeated measures designs. Multiple comparisons were conducted where necessary, and a regression analysis was executed on intervening demographic variables to estimate their possible biasing effect.

Data Source: A total of 105 respondents from 19 advocacy groups participated in the study. Each subject group was introduced to the generic types of information by the same researcher, and reviewed its recent history by group discussion to identify concrete examples of each type of information. Each respondent then completed rating scales on the 32 information channels being investigated.

Results: Descriptive patterns of information acquisition indicate that there is concentration of channel use in only 12 of the 32 channels investigated. Some of these are multipurpose channels and the rest are especially useful for some types of information but not all.

Both kinds of background information showed their strongest interaction with print channels; while both kinds of strategic information produced highest scores from the category of organized social contacts such as workshops and conferences. Individual persons were the important secondary source for all four types of information. Each of the three kinds of user group also showed significant interactions with a distinctive pair of information channel categories.

Significance: This study provided evidence to confirm the hypotheses that different kinds of users report using information channels in distinctive ways, and that different types of information flow through society via distinctive categories of channel. The findings have implications for adult educators who practice within the social activist tradition, for community information brokers, for informal learners and for all who are interested in developing the skills required to turn an information society into a learning society.

THE ACQUISITION OF INFORMATION RESOURCES BY INFORMAL LEARNERS

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INTRODUCTION

Purpose:

The purpose of this research was to measure the extent and the manner in which one constituency in the "learning society" was using mass media, government agencies, organizational contacts and personal networks to support informal learning.

Conceptual Framework:

The informal learners in this study were members of self-help advocacy groups, small organizations which intersect the domains of interest articulation and self-help activities. Their educational interests present a modern example of the social activist tradition in adult education which has been labelled "citizenship" education, education for "participation" or for "social responsibility", and more recently "empowerment" education. Self-help advocacy groups, as a setting for research, also serve to illustrate several features of contemporary adult education practice: lifelong involvement, self-conducted activities, peer group contexts, and anticipatory subject matter -- viewed within society as an educative environment.

The guiding research question evolved from "How do these people learn?" to "How do they develop knowledge out of information?" to, more simply, "How do they acquire information?" This latter question implies three independent variables: the people using information, the types of information they are seeking, and the channels or means by which information is disseminated through society and is collected by them.

As explained in an earlier AERC publication (McCreary, 1983), the literature of several fields provided perspectives from which to define these variables. Information science helped to define the informal learners in this study as "information users" and the format as a "user study". Users were then classified on the basis of their interests as economic, environmental or personal issue advocates. The literature of community-level social change led to a definition of four types of information required for social decision-making: i) general background to an issue, and ii) related social values -- both of which are required to formulate a policy position; along with awareness of iii) formal procedures, and iv) informal means of social action -- both of which contribute to a strategy for social change. Finally, the literature on social networks employed by information users revealed the problem of classifying contacts or "information channels". Each classification scheme reflects particular users and types of information and the specific social milieu in which they operate. For informal learners in advocacy groups, the most applicable scheme included: government channels, mass print, mass audio-visual, social organizations, and individual persons.

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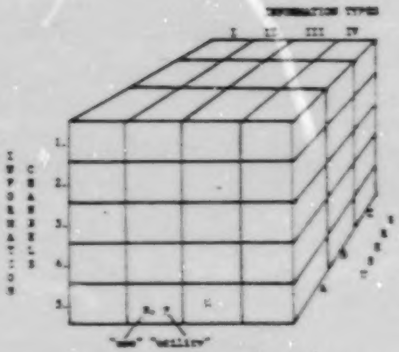

Thus the question of information acquisition could be formulated as a three-way analysis of variance to determine who was acquiring what, where -- each of which constitutes an independent variable. Interaction with a given channel by various users for various purposes, was then measured in terms of its amount (quantity) and usefulness (quality), or "use" and "utility" as shown.

METHODOLOGY

An instrument was constructed with two rating scales beside each item in a list of 32 information channels, one scale for amount and the other for utility of information which was acquired via that channel. Each respondent completed the rating exercise once for each of the four types of information being gathered.

Subject Selection:

Subject selection was a lengthy process beginning with approximately 125 hours of telephone investigation to locate active groups in the "Lower Mainland" of British Columbia, Canada. In all, 90 groups were identified, and screened to determine that advocacy was one of their functions. Groups generally agreed to participate if they perceived in the exercise an opportunity to review their activities and gain some insight into their own operation. A total of 105 respondents participated from 19 groups representing the three categories of economic, environmental and personal issue advocacy.

Data Collection Procedures:

Each hour-long data collection session consisted of three stages. In the first stage participants were drawn into a discussion of what advocacy groups generally need to do and consequently what they need to know. In this way they were introduced to thinking about different kinds of information. Within 10 minutes discussion moved on to the second stage where for another 15-20 minutes members reviewed the recent history of their group. Their task was to recall activities that had required them to obtain information. When a sufficient number of examples had been raised for each respondent to have concrete reference points for each type of information, stage three began, in which individuals rated channels to indicate where each type of information had been acquired.

Data Analysis:

Because of a system changeover in programs during the analysis period, SPSS:9 was used for its frequencies, condescriptive, recode, crosstab, breakdown and regression procedures; and SPSS:X was used for its compute procedure. The P8V sub-program of BMD was used for mixed model multiple analysis of variance because it is adapted for repeated measures designs.

RESULTS

Characteristics of Participants:

Members of economic advocacy groups tended to be older than the average, less well educated, usually women rather than men, and prolific "joiners" of organizations. Environmental advocates tended to be younger, quite well educationed, more than half of whom were men, and not joiners of many organizations. Personal issue advocates tended to be the youngest of all, more likely women than men, quite well educated and also not joiners of many organizations.

Patterns of Information Acquisition:

1. Concentration on a few channels

"Use" scores for the channel items varied over 59 percent of the possible range, while "utility" scores varied over 65 percent. Within that spread of user reports only 12 of the 32 channels ever appeared in the top-rated quartile -- in effect reporting that two-thirds of the channels listed were simply not used consistently enough to rank highly for any purpose whatsoever.

2. Multipurpose channels

Of the high ranking channels, several were multipurpose, appearing in the top quartile for all types of information. In particular, respondents rated "members of their own group" and "other groups comparable to their own" as providers of the largest amount and most useful information of every kind. The predominant third choice was "conferences and workshops" that bring groups together.

3. Specialized channels

The specialized channels, those rated in the top quartile for only one, or two kinds of information were each reported to be providing only "a little" to "a moderate amount". It can be concluded that information acquisition from specialized sources was thinly spread, implying that a considerable amount of effort was required on the part of informal learners to accumulate an adequate amount of each.

4. Differences in user reports

Even in the descriptive data, differences were evident in the pattern of user reports. Groups often led in the reported use of channels that one would associate with their issues. For example: Economic advocates (which often refer to themselves as anti-poverty groups) led in their rating of political party offices; religious groups; close friends, family and neighbours; financial and community development experts. Environmental advocates gave highest rating to their own members, and comparable groups -- but also led in their rating of municipal government departments and elected officials; three kinds of print sources; provincial affiliations, and coalitions; scientific and legal experts. Incidentally, environmental advocates identified legal experts as the third largest contributor to the bulk of their information. Advocates for personal issues where some aspect of human rights was often implicated, led in their reported use of federal ministries and provincial departments; special subscriptions and all five forms of broadcast media; national level and international affiliations; professional associations; and above all, organized workshops and conferences.

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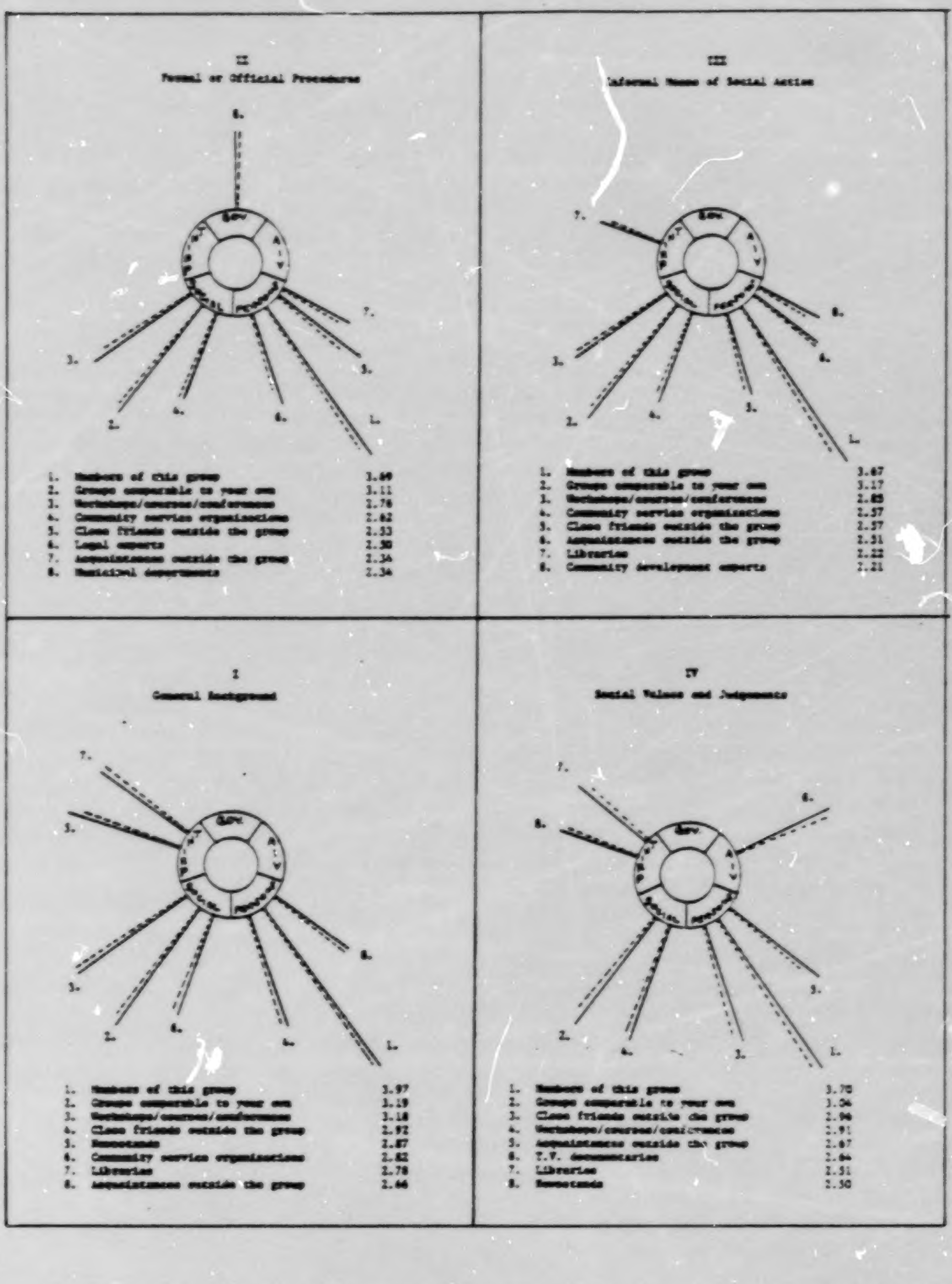

Figure 2: Starplot of the eight channels top-rated for each type of information

Figure 2 illustrates the first three features reported on patterns of information acquisition: concentrated use of 12 channels; recurring use of multipurpose channels; and lower ranking special purpose channels.

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5. Perceptions of channel utility

Not surprisingly, the majority of channels were considered most useful for "general background" information.

Only political party offices and lawyers were identified as primarily useful for "formal procedures."

Community development experts, comparable groups and provincial affiliates were given highest ratings for "informal social action", but had almost equal ratings for "general background" as well.

The most interesting collection of channels were the ones perceived as best suited to influencing "social values". They were all five kinds of broadcast channels, bookstores; religious groups; personal friends, family, acquaintances, neighbours; and community development experts.

Testing the Hypothesized Relationships:

It had been hypothesized that the rating of channel categories would vary by type of information, and would also vary by kind of user group. The multiple analysis of variance provided significance tests for six two-way interactions. Four of them were not significant -those hypothesized were. Subsequently, multiple comparisons were made using Dunn's procedure to explore the precise nature of the interaction effects.

Table 1 shows the interaction of five channel categories with the four information types. In each instance the category of individual persons had the second highest interaction mean, and print or organized social contacts had the highest mean. In each case, the cell with the highest mean was contrasted with the other four and found to be not significant. But when the top two cell means were tested together against the other three, the difference between them was significant (p<.01). For information types, then, there was always a secondary reliance on individuals. Nevertheless, both types of background information were acquired more effectively by print sources, and both types of strategic information were acquired more effectively through organized social contacts than by other sectors.

CELL MEANS FOR INTERACTION OF CHANNEL CATEGORIES
WITH INFORMATION TYPES

Channel Categories	General Background		Formal Procedures		Informal Social Action		Social Values and Judgements	
	X̄	S.D.	X̄	S.D.	X̄	S.D.	X̄	S.D.
Government	2.32	.02	2.16	.20	1.83	.06	1.95	.16
Mass print	2.62	.13	1.98	.17	2.05	.06	2.41	.18
Mass audio-visual	2.28	[illegible]	1.90	.12	1.99	.01	2.33	.17
Organized social contacts	2.46	.05	2.56	.06	2.26	.12	2.23	.11
Individual persons	2.56	.02	2.27	.02	2.19	.09	2.39	.20

Note: Shaded areas indicate the two categories most highly rated

Similar results were found for the interaction of channel categories with kinds of user, as shown in Table 2. For economic advocates, "individual persons" had the highest cell mean and "organized social contacts" the second highest. For environmental advocates "individual persons" had the highest mean followed by "print channels; and for personal issue advocates "mass audio-visual" had the highest mean followed by "organized social contacts". Again, when the top two categories were tested against the lower three, the difference was significant (p<.01).

CELL MEANS FOR INTERACTION OF CHANNEL CATEGORIES
WITH GROUP TYPES

Channel Categories	Group Types					
	Economic		Environmental		Personal	
	X̄	S.D.	X̄	S.D.	X̄	S.D.
Government	2.01	.05	2.21	.12	1.99	.17
Mass print	2.09	.02	2.36	.09	1.33	.02
Mass audio-visual	1.99	.03	1.80	.27	2.52	.29
Organized social contacts	2.25	.05	2.29	.02	2.46	.20
Individual persons	2.29	.16	2.42	.07	2.27	.17

Note: Shaded areas indicate the two categories used most successfully by each group type.

Among user interactions, there are interesting comparisons to be drawn. Both economic and environmental groups gave their highest rating to individual persons -- but the former used their immediate circle of friends, while the latter used experts. Both economic and personal advocates rated the sector of organized social contacts as their highest category -- but the former respondents are heavy joiners (belonging on the average to 8 organizations), while the latter joined an average of four groups only. The sector of individual contacts, so important for each type of information, and for the other two kinds of users, did not rank in the top two sectors for personal issue advocates -- instead mass broadcast appears as the sector upon which they rely most heavily.

Implications for Future Research:

It is quite possible that equally rich areas of research await in the subsequent stages of information management that follow the acquisition stage studied in this project. However, certain interesting questions follow directly from findings of the present study. For example:

Since environmentalists dominated the reported use of dispersed, specialized sources, what do they know that other "information activists" don't?

Apart from intimates (friends, family, neighbours, and religious groups) the channels most strongly identified with influencing values were all five kinds of broadcast channels, bookstores, and community development experts. When are the media influences important and when the personal?

Why did the category of individual persons as information channels recur as the second most important for acquisition of all the information types? Are these individuals truly important or is their high rating only a consequence of being easily accessible.

Finally, why did economic advocates rely most on individuals and organized social contacts; environmentalists on individuals and print; and personal issue advocates on mass broadcast and organized social contacts? Could economic advocates be particularly disenfranchised from print sources? Could the new immigrant groups and others in the personal issue category be relying most on mass broadcast because it has made special adaptation to their needs, or does it imply absorption of these people into one-way channels of communication?

There is reason to believe that a learning society can be built in the information age, but only if we first discover, and then master, the skills this transformation is demanding of us.

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER MULTIPLE LEGITIMATE USES OF RESEARCH PROCESSES IN ADULT EDUCATION

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Scholars are responsible for the research that moves the frontiers of knowledge, for examining the tradition and assumptions of research design and methodology, and for re-examining the questions about social and behavioral research.

University faculty use research processes and findings as bases for their teaching, as they build programs, and as they develop scholars and practitioners in adult education. As teachers, they must study the research in teaching. To be considered worthy of promotion, university faculty must obtain research grants and publish research in refereed journals.

The graduate student in adult education must demonstrate mastery of at least one research methodology, become conversant with the multiple compleing methodologies of research, and must become skilled at the poltics and economics of research.

The administrator of adult education programs must build his administration on research outcomes and strengthen his professional development by wise use of research findings.

The teacher of adults uses research outcomes to make his/her teaching effective and to attract, motivate and reward findings as we pursue lifelong learning, and all adults can use adult education processes in making decisions. Adult education research can even enhance our chances that we will use research processes effectively.

MULTIPLE LEGITIMATE USES OF RESEARCH PROCESSES IN ADULT EDUCATION

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Adult Education, ancient in practice, but young as a field of systematic study, builds on the research and shares research methodologies of other social, behavioral and educational fields. Adult education borrows the strengths, limitations and conflicts of related fields as it borrows their research practices, and it probably adds those of its own.

The purposes of this paper are to present and analyze some of the positions advocated for the roles of research in adult education. Also, the paper goes beyond the advocated research practices for scholars to the uses of research practices by students, by practitioners and by all adults as they make decisions.

I. For the scholar in adult education research, research and research processes fill several important purposes and require difficult decisions. Scholars also bear special burdens regarding research. Scholars are those who have the competencies, time and resources to not only produce the research that moves the frontiers of knowledge, but to reflect on the questions about social and behavioral research, and to critically examine research traditions and assumptions.

Following are some of the questions needing answers; To what extent was Durkheim correct when he said we could (should) treat social facts as things? Is social investigation a neutral activity in regard to values - free of bias, emotional involvement? Or is Dilthey correct when he concludes that "we are the subject and object of (social) inquiry" (Smith. 83)? Does human behavior occur more than once? To what extent and under what conditions are replication, generalization and prediction possible? dependable? What can be understood in the absence of context? To what extent is the meaning of human activity socially and time bounded? What is to count as knowledge? What is the definition of objectivity? Does subjectivity inevitably have a role? What do the researcher and practitioner have to offer each other? Is it reasonable to expect that those who are skilled in quantitative research also become more prompt and more productive in designing increasingly useful ways of obtaining and treating quantitative data? Is it reasonable to expect that those who are skilled in qualitative research be more precise and more thorough in describing what they do? And eventually, can the answers to these and related questions be reconcilled? And until they can be reconcilled, how can those who disagree be supportive of others and loyal to selves?

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Moving from some of the decisions about research to the practice of research, the study of research processes help fill the scholar's need to continuously broaden his/her own competencies as a researcher, stimulated by and building on the research of others in adult education and related areas. Like the rest of us, the research scholar by study can increase his/her repertoire of research methodologies beyond those previously mastered, beyond those used by researchers for whom he/she has high regard, and to include those methods with potential but which have been used ineptly or used by persons for whom the scholar has little regard. The scholar can use his/her study of research to provide current content in his/her teaching and to broaden competency in supervising the research of advanced students. The scholar can use his study of research and research processes to maintain quality in writing for publication. And one purpose of his/her writing can be to encourage adult education faculty and students as they strive to strengthen their competencies at the completion of research and the utilization of research findings.

II. The college or university faculty member in adult education must make important uses of research processes and research findings but faces challenges different from those of the research scholar.

Research processes and findings are the basis for selecting concepts, skills and practices in the planning of courses and programs for students, in the selection of text and reference materials, in the designing of out-of-class activities for students and in developing methodologies and criteria for evaluating students' achievement and his/her own teaching effectiveness.

Faculty members must prepare highly competent scholar-practioners who in turn must be skillful at drawing research problems from practice. Faculty must teach their scholar-practioners to hold a healthy distrust of generalizations, predictions, and replications, must teach methods appropriate to examine practical research questions, must instill commitments to using research models and methods to approach every problem situation. In so doing, adult education faculty can make the considerable power of research directly useful to practitioners.

As a developer of students in the competencies of research the faculty member can draw on his/her study of research and thus more effectively stimulate growth in the apprentice. Being one person removed as the research advisor presents unique opportunities to learn research competencies.

Faculty members who see teaching as potentially one of the powerful interactions among people and who treat this power with respect must spend some of their time studying research on teaching. Soltis (1984) concludes that there is a need for empirical research "to give insight into (pedagogy's) causal and correlational dimentions," Soltis continues that there is need for "equally serious study of the intersubjective and subjective dimentions (of teaching) to open our understandings of the . . . human meanings exchanged, developed and evoked in the pedagogical encounter and a searching exploration of the normative, ideological, and ethical dimentions of pedagogy as a basic form of human social interaction."

As a faculty member informed of research methods and findings in adult education, he/she becomes uniquely valuable as he/she renders service to his/her college and university and serves as colleague to receptive faculty members.

As a student of research the faculty member informally examines the designs, instruments, methodologies and findings of research with colleagues, subject his/her thinking to the examination of other mature students of research, both contributing and gaining through the process.

As a student of research the faculty member can publish analyses of the research of others and in so doing can strengthen his/her own competencies as analyst and submit his analyses to a wider audience for evaluation.

The faculty member can use his/her study of research in adult education and related areas to more effectively design his/her own research and to write more sophisticated research proposals.

In recent years the roles of research in the lives of (especially young) faculty members has increased greatly in importance. Yielding the the alure of the prestige awarded research universities, many presidents and deans of institutions housing adult education doctoral programs are pursuing the goal of "becoming a world class university!" This sounds so good it must be wise. To become a research university every faculty member worthy of promotion (or retention) or salary increases must obtain research grants and publish research findings in refereed journals. Needing respect and promotion, faculty members often conclude that they must become published researchers.

III. A graduate student who is to become an adult educator, a college faculty member, a researcher or some combination of these is in a situation with the most to gain from the study and practice of research. But with much to gain there is also much at risk.

Early, experiences with research may be statements that an important concept or practice in adult education is supported by research. A perceptive but naive individual should conclude at this point that research is a dependable and unitary process that produces dependable answers. As the student builds competencies in research processes, becomes conversant with the numerous methodologies, understands the complexities that are represented by the research report he/she can use research as bases for understanding, mastering and validating important concepts and is beginning to design his/her supervised research.

The student apprentice, working with a faculty member doing research, may be amazed that the complex and often chaotic appearing behaviors are the basis for such a structured report. The apprentice may be amazed at the politics and economics of research, at the meticulous attention to some details and the cavalier treatment of others.

In moving from ignorance to competence the student is inevitably indoctrinated by the very experiences needed to produce competence. His/her conclusions about the relative values of different methododologies and criteria for quality may be unduly influenced by an admired mentor, or may be coerced by a dogmatic faculty member. Thus a graduate student may be seduced or forced into premature closure based on the attractiveness of the advocates rather than the strengths and appropriateness of a research method. And in choosing a major professor the most appropriate or the most attractive faculty may already be taken by other students or by his/her own research commitments and unavailable at times of student need.

With experience and increasing sophistication the student may get caught in the methodology and quality arguments when required to please committee members who disagree.

Being intelligent, resourceful and often forced to behave more maturely than faculty, the candidate for graduation can use his/her experiences with research processes as an important component in making decisions on which futures in adult education are apt to be most appropriate and rewarding, both to the interests and strengths of the student and to the field of adult education.

IV. The administrator of adult education programs can utilize research processes to strengthen many of his/her practices of administration.

Knowledge of research processes can be used in the diagnosis of the needs of adult learners, in the recruitment and screening of teachers of adults, to guide the scheduling of instruction, the selection of equipment and learning materials, to guide the supervision and evaluation of teachers and in the planning and implementation of staff development programs.

Research competencies can guide the professional activities of the administrator as she/he maintains and improves his/her own competencies, as he/she selects and evaluates consultants and as she/he works with, contributes to, and learns from other administrators.

V. The teacher of adult learners can use research processes to guide the diagnosis of learner needs, the selection of teaching strategies, the preparation of materials, and learning activities, the uses of motivations and rewards, and the constructive evaluation of learner achievements.

Research processes can increase teacher competence in understanding adult learners and in utilizing the out-of-class influences in the lives of students to enhance the achievement of students' learning goals.

Research processes can influence the quality of the many informal practices used to understand learners, to attract them to the learning environment, and to increase teaching effectiveness. The skillful teacher tempers the science of the researcher with the ready art of the practitioner to frequently produce outcomes beyond those envisioned by the scientist. The perceptive scientist studies the competent practitioner hoping to distill an essence that can be taught to others.

VI. Research processes have multiple uses for each of us as adult learners.

Research processes can help us diagnose our own learning needs, understand our learning styles, design effective use of teachers, materials and experiences, help us decide when to serve as teachers; when, in our own learning to use the student role in formal educational settings; and when and how to design and complete self education projects.

Also each of us should appropriately use research processes as we make decisions. The research steps of: 1) identifying and accurately stating the decision making situation, 2) designing an intelligent and systematic process for collecting important data, 3) collecting and validating data, 4) organizing the data in forms that make them meaningful, 5) determining what data mean. These processes produce a sound basis on which to make decisions.

But Goslin (1985) reminds us that "in defining a problem people dislike thinking about unpleasant eventualities, have difficulty in assigning dollar values to alternative courses of action, have a tendency toward premature closure, overlook or undervalue long-range consequences and are unduly influenced by the first formulation of the problem." Later Goslin muses; "Whether there are any limits on the capacity of a society to absorb new knowledge and the new problems it generates and, if so, what happens when these limits are reached?"

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PLAY AND PLAYFULNESS IN ADULT LEARNING: WOMEN'S PERSPECTIVES

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Play, we are told is child's "work", the optimum way for young people to learn. Despite extensive research documenting the significance of play in learning and development for primates and children, nothing comparable exists for adult learning. Only rarely is the topic mentioned in the literature of adult education and then in a most peripheral way. The major purpose of this study has been to understand how the experience of play and playfulness enhances adult learning and development. A group of nine middle-aged women were interviewed to ascertain where and how they find play, and in what ways it contributes to their learning. A "multiple paths" qualitative reseach approach was used, borrowing from a number of traditional theories at different stages of the inquiry process.

The new research on adult development which challenges the notion that learning and growth occur only in childhood has provided new openings into the subject of play and learning. Viewed as a continuous process throughout the life span and without a sharp demarcation between childhood and adulthood, development is now understood as incremental rather than oppositional. Older theories are being reinterpreted and new ones introduced which modify our understanding of the teaching and learning process.

The women interviewed were able to describe vividly not only how they learned, but the contributions of a playful stance to their learning. When a playful attitude is not present, learning is diminished, and for some, impossible. In describing the connection between play and the way they learned, there was near unamimous agreement that play opened them up to learning, enabling them to access dormant intellectual resources.

On a pragmatic level, when these women can play at their learning motivation is increased ("if it's not fun, it's not worth doing). There is energy, and more total involvement intellectually and emotionally. As well, they are able to temporarily suspend judgement, to risk, and to colour outside the lines, (even to "rock the cultural boat"). In addition to the facilitation of learning, play is also a way of coming to know something, first through the senses and later by translating meanings into words and symbols. Playing with ideas and experiences makes it is possible to gain access to the past through imagery and reflection, the present through experiential immersion, and the future where intuition, imagination and the wellsprings of creativity lead us to unexplored fields. Initially providing an opening to learning, play also makes it possible to stretch limits transcending the present and moving one beyond the mundane and the ordinary.

The dualistic assumption that one cannot combine play with work, or balance the serious and the playful in a well-integrated life is fallacious. If learning and play can be truly acknowledged as potential partners in a gestalt ethos and women's experience can be valued for its unique particularity, the field of adult education will have moved another step further toward the goal of empowerment through life-long learning.

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Introduction

By its very nature, play is paradoxical, both frivolous and serious, spontaneous within prescribed limits, existential and transcendent. Radical in form, it releases us from internal restrictions and demands that we free ourselves from social conformity. Writings from a broad theoretical and practical base suggest that the ultimate result of living one's life more playfully is an increase in health and happiness (Erikson, 1977; Fox, 1979). Broadly defined, mental health is the actualization of a creative/playful lifestyle, one in which the individual remains open to growth, surprise, self-expression, and the quest for usefulness. Although most adults yearn to exhume play from childhood memory and to include more of it in their lives, the subject has long been considered inconsequential and unworthy of serious study (Levy, 1978). Restoring play to the purview of daily existence has the potential to facilitate a holistic merger of the traditionally separate phenomena of work, play, and learning, and to contribute to the improvement of the quality of adult life on many levels.

Background and Purpose

Play, we are told is child's "work", the optimum way for young people to learn. Despite extensive research documenting the significance of play in learning and development for primates and children (Christie and Johnsen, 1983) there has been nothing comparable for adult learning. Only rarely is the topic mentioned in the literature of adult education and then in a most peripheral way. The major purpose of this study has been to understand how the experience of play and playfulness enhances adult learning and development. It has achieved this, not through impartial observation, or measurement of isolated variables, but through the lived experience of adults. In the process of resurrecting play to the serious concerns of adult functioning it became clear that until recently the female experience of play and learning had been culturally and intellectually neglected. Following the precedent set by Gilligan (1983) and others, it seemed important to look at play in the context of women's lives, to ascertain where they find it, how it works or does not work for them, and how it contributes to the way they learn.

The new research on adult development which challenges the notion that learning and growth occur only in childhood (Chickering, 1976) has provided new openings into the subject of play and learning. Viewed as a continuous process throughout the life span and without a sharp demarcation between childhood and adulthood, development is now understood as incremental rather than oppositional. Older theories are being reinterpreted and new ones introduced which modify our understanding of the teaching and learning process, e.g. that adulthood is characterized by the ability to

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reason abstractly (Charuhas, 1983) or that all adults process information or create meaning in the same way (Kolb, 1984; Perry, 1981).

"Learning" in these pages is viewed as an ongoing process of personal transformation or restructuring (Kidd, 1973) rather than the accumulation of immutable truths. It also assumes personally relevant, transformational learning to be playful, exploratory, experiential, energizing, self-initiated, and emancipating. In this sense, learning causes us to question, to play with ideas, and to search outside the lines for answers. It increases our ability to have control over our lives, and causes us to rebel against unthinking conformity to the status quo. Because of these factors, learning which energizes and transforms us is also disconfirming, alienating, and painful.

Research Approach

My ideas have been shaped, but not limited, by intensive interviews with a cohort group of nine women, mostly over the age of forty, who defined themselves as playful. A snowball sample was gathered of middle-class, educated, white women professionals who valued play in their own lives and in their careers and were interested in expanding the play potential in their work. Four of the participants in one geographical location, previously unknown to each other, formed a Play Study Group to react to my developing ideas and to extend their own understandings.

A "multiple paths" (Rowan, 1981) qualitative research approach was used, borrowing from a number of traditional theories at different stages of the inquiry process. Semi-structured interviews were used to collect data, to which guided fantasy and imagery were added for the purpose of searching for deeper, less cliché-ridden meanings of play. The data was analyzed according to principles of grounded theory and interpreted philosophically with the aid of hermeneutic and participatory research methods within an emancipatory or critical context (Sullivan, 1984). The idea of choosing one method, like adopting one style of learning seemed constrictive and unproductive. Support for an eclectic playful research approach comes from other researchers (Phillips, 1973; Schwartzman, 1978). According to Duelli-Klein, "good research requires the freedom to combine whatever parts of whatever methods we think are promising for our research goals" (1980, p. 58). Breaking away from the "tyranny of methodology" (Daly, 1973) forces us to re-vision the old and to ask new kinds of questions. The opportunity to wonder, to organize ideas in new ways, to follow a truly emergent design, and to move from what IS to what MIGHT BE offered possibilities for a playfully/rigorous research method.

During the analysis of the data, and in the interest of academic scholarship, a "detached" third person relationship was attempted. However early in the process of coding, it became obvious that my energy was best utilized when personal interpretations were engaged rather than eliminated. The goal of impartiality was henceforth replaced with a hermeneutic dialogical stance in which bias came to be viewed as a necessary condition for understanding (Sullivan, 1984). For this reason, the combination of "we" and "they" in the text which follows denotes an accurate tension between my role as researcher and as the tenth woman in the study.

Findings

The Lived Experience of Play. Because play/playfulness seems to represent an individual's lifestyle or way of being in the world, it cannot be isolated as a distinct set of variables or isolated phenomenon. According to the women, play, hence playful learning, is representative of an approach to life which features positiveness, openness, and integration. Unlike organized play which is instrumental and purposeful, the play described is attitudinal, referring not to WHAT we do, but to HOW and WHY we do it. The initiators are complex, unpredictable and contextual with the ultimate interpretation "this is play" residing within each individual. The circumstances which make play possible arise from a balance of inner motivations and outer circumstances. The inner experience is sensual, childlike, joyful, and spontaneous, bursting with energy and aliveness; a way of saying "Yes" to life. A distinguishing feature is receptivity and openness to oneself, others, and to the surprises of the universe. If the physical and social environment is authoritative, judgmental, or rigid, our playful inclinations are inhibited or thwarted. When play occurs spontaneously and freely, it can be enormously contagious, uniting others in exhilerating fun and conviviality.

Apart from the socio-psychological antecedents for play, there are indicators that play/playfulness is connected to the developmental process. As persons grow older they tend to feel more sure of themselves, more willing to risk and to give themselves permission to act "inappropriately." For this reason, it may be that play in our culture is most accessible for children and older adults. Unfortunately, the overlay of societal definitions for play are alien to women's experience (it always seemed to be equated with playing competitive sports or being good joke-tellers). This prevented them from acknowledging their playful selves until later in their lives.

Play and learning. Attitudes toward learning were not differentiated from lifesyle preferences. As one woman stated:

> There's something related to the stance of being a learner; that one approaches one's experience, one's life work as a learner. It is the same as approaching it as a player.

Because of socialization patterns which prepared them for marginality to public life, ("nature, necessity and non-freedom" [O'Brien, 1981]) the women interviewed seem to have developed capacities which distinguish their play as well as their learning behaviour from that of men. Although men's opinions were not actively polled, their experience represents a towering backdrop to the study itself. Almost all of the existing theories of play and learning have been formulated by men who used men's lives as a model. Traditional methods of education based on knowledge which is non-concrete and alien to women's experience, in competitive rather than collaborative settings, seem to meet the needs of this participant group poorly.

Most of the women were able to describe vividly not only how they learned, but the contributions of a playful stance to their learning. When a playful attitude is not present, learning is diminished , and for some, impossible. In describing the connection between play and the way they learned, there was near unamimous agreement that "play opens me up to learning". Variously stated, the "open" metaphor depicts "releasing the steel bands around my body of kowledge," "opening doors," "opening up possibilities," "enabling me to see things in fresh new ways." One woman called play "the great lever which allowed all of her intelligences to interact." This openness does not infer careless, irresponsible behaviour, but a considered weighing of alternatives. The risk and inherent vulnerability of a playful stance always seems preferable to what is predictable, routine, or boring. The open metaphors described a tripartite process; play opens us up, keeps us open and involved, and stretches the open boundaries themselves. Closing is also part of the open story, knowing when to open, how long to stay open and when to close down. Cluttering one's life and denying one's feelings is one form of closing down; the result is emotional, intellectual and physical dis-ease.

On a pragmatic level, when these women can play at learning, motivation is increased ("if it's not fun, it's not worth doing); there is energy, and more total involvement intellectually and emotionally. As well, they are able to temporarily suspend judgement, to risk, and to colour outside the lines, (even "to rock the cultural boat"). In addition to the facilitation of learning, play is also a way of coming to know something, first through the senses and later by translating meanings into words and symbols. The themes of play as a motivation for learning, and play as a vehicle for understanding, are also true for children's learning. Rarely has it received credence for adults, who it seems, are expected to discard the joy of wondering and discovery, concrete operational thinking (Piaget, 1972), and fantasy and make-believe, once they reach maturity, (at about age twenty).

The five learning strengths which emerged as particularly compatible with the playful living style documented by this group of women were:

relational: the capacity for connectedness and concern
experiential: valuing and learning from experience
metaphoric: common sense and right-brain thinking
integrative: valuing a holistic and organic relation to people and things
empowerment: the power to tranform not only ourselves but the world(s) we inhabit

Discussion

The exploration of play as an invitation to learning directed me to an understanding of cognition as a multi-dimensional tapestry, to the door of the unconscious, and to a brief encounter with the playful right brain. One woman's idea was that the mind is a changing unfinished tapestry as contrasted with a jig-saw puzzle made up of pre-determined pieces. This image reflects current scientific assumptions about the nature of existence. The principles of linearity, stasis, and causation, once assumed to describe the universe, are being replaced by a vision which is circular, pulsating, "stochastic" and interconnected (Bateson, 1972). Instead of separateness, the world is now viewed as fundamentally active and interconnected.

Like the other forces in the universe, human activity is also a playful blending of adventure, surprise, energy, circularity, trial and error, and interconnectedness. In order to know and understand, the many parts of the self must interact and bounce off each other in a somewhat random manner. Rather than ordered, sequential knowledge-building, most of us "follow our nose" filling and refilling shifting empty spaces within a lifetime. Despite the fact that most formal learning experiences emphasize deliberate and conscious processes, the vast bulk of learning takes place in the unconscious. Unfortunately, "most adults learn to distrust this non-verbal, non-representational, and unconscious learning because it is difficult to verbalize and is often perceived as illogical and irrational" (Brundage and McKeracher, 1980, pp. 17-18).

Play helps us to engage and connect with parts of ourselves which are usually dormant, inaccessible, or well-defended; in the process we shuffle, sort, and arrange the various images and symbols which have been stored from life's experiences. Through play we gain access to the past using imagery and reflection, the present through experiential immersion, and to the future where intuition, imagination, and the wellsprings of creativity lead us to unexplored fields. In addition to opening us to learning, play makes it possible to stretch our limits transcending the present and moving us beyond the mundane and the ordinary.

The application of these ideas to the field of adult learning would not entail fundamental changes. When play is infused with person-centered learning, enthusiasm and commitment are ennervating partners; the whole person is engaged in a uniquely relevant and joyful adventure. Precedents have already been established in relation to: creating a climate for learning, which includes the importance of improving student self-esteem, and the social benefits of collaborative learning in groups; expanding the concept of the intellect; the role of creativity; learning from experience; informal and popular education, and self-directed learning.

Despite the absence of joy in most formal learning settings, education and play need not be mutually exclusive. The dualistic assumption that one cannot combine play with work, or balance the serious and the playful in a well-integrated life is fallacious. If learning and play can be truly acknowledged as potential partners in a gestalt ethos, and women's experience can be valued for its unique particularity, the field of adult education will have moved another step further toward the goal of empowerment through life-long learning.

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER Development and Validation of an Instrument to Identify Self-Directed Continuing Learners

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This study sought to describe the personality characteristics of self-directed continuing learners, develop an instrument to identify such learners, and conduct empirical investigations to validate the instrument. Three overlapping dimensions (Proactive Drive vs. Reactive Drive, Commitment to Learning vs. Apathy or Aversion to Learning, and Cognitive Openness vs. Defensiveness) of the self-directed continuing learner's personality were developed from a review of the literature. These dimensions guided the development of an item pool. Content validation of the items was provided by panels of experts and graduate students. Prepilot and pilot study results provided the basis for refining the items into a 24-item instrument for use in a validation effort.

The validation sample consisted of 271 graduate students in adult education, law, and nursing. The instrument demonstrated an internal consistency of .87 and a test-retest reliability of .89.

Factor analysis indicated that most items loaded on a general factor containing elements of self-confidence, ability to work independently, and learning through involvement with others. Two subsidiary factors, Reading Avidity and Ability to be Self-Regulating, also emerged. These factors represented two of the original dimensions of the construct.

Construct validity for the instrument and its underlying theoretical formulations was suggested by its positive correlation with a measure of educational participation and with measures of self-confidence, endurance, and affiliation. Discriminant validity was provided when the scores failed to correlate with a measure of adult intelligence.

Results suggest that the instrument is a reliable and valid tool for identifying self-directed continuing learners when used in its entirety. Further efforts at refinement and validation of the instrument should be undertaken.

Development and Validation of an Instrument to Identify Self-Directed Continuing Learners

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Introduction

The phenomenon of self-directed learning has received much attention in adult education literature. Various authors, especially Houle (1961, 1980), have stressed that self-directed learning is essential if adults are to maintain competence in the rapidly changing, technologically complex society of the modern age. Although the literature is replete with references to self-directed learning, no robust theoretical construct has yet been developed--a gap noted by Brockett (1983), Brookfield (1984), and Griffin (1978), among others.

The lack of a unified concept of self-directed learning has implications for a particular segment of the adult population, namely professionals, who must have a high degree of motivation to learn in order to maintain competence throughout their careers (Dubin, 1974). Houle (1980) presented a model of traditional professional education, noting that learning for the professional begins in earnest after entry into practice. Yet selection procedures for entry into professional schools (which are oriented to intelligence, achievement, and aptitude) do not predict which individuals will continue to learn throughout life (Gunzburger, 1980). The potential to continue learning throughout one's career is seldom, if ever, considered as part of selection procedures, possibly because the characteristics of those who possess this potential are not well defined.

In an effort to learn more about the phenomenon of self-directed learning and its related personality characteristics, particularly in professionals, the present study sought to (a) describe theoretical formulations for the personality characteristics of self-directed continuing learners, (b) develop an instrument to identify such learners, and (c) conduct empirical investigations to validate the instrument.

Theoretical Perspectives

Traditionally self-directed learning has been viewed as a process of self-instruction, leading various investigators to focus on the ability of the learner to execute the steps in the process: set goals, develop and implement a learning plan, and evaluate results. Education theorists (such as Bruner, 1961; Dewey, 1951), however, maintain that the process of instruction does not account for all, or even for most, of the human learning that occurs. Thus, a view of self-directed learning as self-instruction would seem to offer too limited a scope for such a complex activity. The perspective adopted in the present study, therefore, focused on the personality characteristics of individuals whose learning behavior is characterized by initiative and persistence in learning over time through a variety of learning modes, such as the modes of inquiry, instruction, and performance proposed by Houle (1980).

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Methodology

Development of Theoretical Formulations

Initially an extensive list of personality characteristics of self-directed learners was compiled from recurring themes in the writings of experts on self-directed learning and from research findings suggesting empirical support for these variables. Logically related attributes were then successively divided into groups and eventually refined into three broad overlapping clusters hypothesized as being the essential personality dimensions of self-directed continuing learners. Each dimension was conceived as lying on a continuum having two poles, one of which related to individuals marked by high amounts of the characteristic (i.e., self-directed continuing learners) and one of which related to individuals marked by low amounts of the characteristic (i.e., non-self-directed continuing learners). The three dimensions so described were termed Proactive Drive versus Reactive Drive (PD/RD), Cognitive Opennness versus Defensiveness (CO/D), and Commitment to Learning versus Apathy or Aversion to Learning (CL/AAL).

PD/RD. This dimension focused on the learner's ability to initiate and persist in learning without immediate or obvious external reinforcement. The term "proactive" was used to encompass the competence motivation theory of White (1959) and the humanistic theoretical perspectives of Maslow (1970) and Rogers (1969). Repeatedly, attributes of self-directed learners in the literature were described in terms commonly associated with the autonomous, self-actualizing individual who seeks opportunities to grow and fulfill potential. The "learning-oriented" continuing learner described by Houle (1961) and the experts identified by Brookfield (1981) seem to demonstrate intrinsic motivation to be effective in dealing with their environments and to grow. Thus, a combination of competence and self-actualization motivation could locically serve to explain such initiative and persistence in learning behavior.

The salient characteristics of PD/RD consisted of self-regulating behavior, possession of high self-esteem and self-confidence, and engagement in self-initiated and self-sustained learning activity directed toward higher level goals. At the opposite pole of this dimension were the reliance of the individual on extrinsic forces to stimulate learning, a tendency to discontinue activity when obstacles are encountered, engagement in learning to meet lower order needs, and low self-confidence.

CO/D. Knowles (1975) and Lindeman (1961), among others, identified openness to change as an essential attribute of the self-directed learner. Although there was little empirical support encountered in the literature for this thesis, this dimension was included in the theoretical formulations because of the strength of such experts' opinions.

Salient characteristics of CO/D included openness to new ideas and activities, ability to adapt to change, and tolerance of ambiguity. The opposite pole included attributes such as rigidity, fear of failure, and avoidance of new ideas and activities.

CL/AAL. The line of learning orientation research stimulated by Houle (1961) provided a basis for hypothesizing this final dimension. Learning orientation research has consistently demonstrated the existence of groups of individuals who find learning enjoyable for its own sake and actively participate in learning through a variety of modes. Conversely, studies by Houle (1961) and Johnstone and Rivera (1965), among others, suggested that some individuals exhibit little or no interest in learning and participate in few learning activities of limited variety.

Salient characteristics of CL/AAL included the expression of positive attitudes toward engaging in learning activities of varying sorts and a preference for more thought-provoking leisure pursuits. The opposite pole included expressions of indifferent or hostile attitudes toward engaging in learning activities and reports of less engagement in activities commonly regarded as promoting learning.

Construction and Analysis of a Pilot Instrument

One hundred items were developed around the three dimensions described above. Content validation of the items was achieved by subjecting each item to review by a panel of graduate students in law, nursing, and adult education and a panel of experts in concepts relating to psychological constructs or self-directed learning.

Items deemed content valid (n = 65) were assembled as a pre-pilot instrument and administered to 30 volunteers involved in the study of law, nursing, and education. Items identified as unreliable through analysis of the pre-pilot data were then eliminated from the item pool.

The remaining 31 items were assembled as a pilot instrument with responses arranged on a seven-point Likert-type scale and administered to 287 graduate students in law, nursing, and education. Five unreliable items were deleted; the raw score coefficient alpha for the remaining 26 items was .750. Factor analysis of the pilot data yielded five factors accounting for 44.5% of the total variance. Although the factor structure underlying the pilot data was not identical to the dimensions of the original theoretical formulations, nonetheless the five factors were judged to relate logically to these dimensions and served as a basis for revision of items for use in final phase of development of the study instrument.

Validation Study

The purpose of this final phase of the present study was to obtain estimates of reliability and internal and external estimates of validity for the study instrument (named the Oddi Continuing Learning Inventory [OCLI]). The OCLI was administered to a different sample of 271 graduate students in law, nursing, and adult education in conjunction with a demographic data survey instrument and one of several instruments selected to provide a measure of discriminant or convergent validity. A retest was administered to 34 volunteers two weeks following initial administration of the OCLI.

Findings

Reliability

Two items in the OCLI demonstrated unsatisfactory correlation with the total score and were removed from the instrument. Analysis of the remaining items yielded an internal consistency of .875. Test-retest reliability was .893.

Factor Analysis

Factor analysis of data obtained from the study sample yielded three factors accounting for 45.7% of the total variance. Factor I contained 15 salient items and accounted for 30.9% of the variance; it represented elements from the PD/RD dimension of the theoretical formulations (which had also been obtained in pilot Factor I) and gained additional items reflecting the ability to work independently and to learn through involvement with others. These additional items warranted consideration of Factor I as a general factor rather than as a discrete factor reflecting a particular dimension of the theoretical formulations.

Factor II, Ability to be Self-Regulating, contained three salient items and accounted for 8% of the total variance. Items clustering on this factor had clustered similarly on a factor in the pilot study and represented one of the elements in the PD/RD dimension of the theoretical formulations.

Factor III, Avidity for Reading, contained four salient items and accounted for 6.8% of the total variance. These items reflected a portion of the CL/AAL dimension and had clustered similarly in the pilot study. Items related to other modes of learning tended to cluster in OCLI Factor I, the general factor.

Validity

Scores on the OCLI correlated positively (r = .363, p = .004) with scores on the Learning Activity Survey (Litchfield, 1965), a measure of participation in educational activities. Scores also correlated positively with scores on numerous subscales of the Adjective Check List (Gough & Heilbrun, 1983): Self-Confidence (r = .551, p < .0001), Endurance (r = .539, p < .0001), and Affiliation (r = .265, p = .04); the Adjective Check List is a self-report instrument used to indicate an individual's belief about personal characteristics. These positive correlations suggest convergent validity of the OCLI, as well as providing support for elements of the PD/RD and the CL/AAL dimensions of the theoretical formulations. A measure of discriminant validity was provided when scores on the OCLI failed to correlate significantly (r = .040, p = .754) with scores on the Shipley Institute of Living Scale (Shipley, 1982), a measure of adult intelligence.

Contrary to expectations, OCLI scores did not correlate significantly with either the Change subscale of the Adjective Check List (r = -.020, p = .928) or with the I-E Scale (Rotter, 1966), a measure of locus of control (r = -.040, p = .73).

Discussion

The OCLI is an instrument of satisfactory reliability and stability. On the basis of correlations of OCLI scores with other instruments of known reliability and validity, the OCLI is a valid instrument when used in its entirety.

In departing from the traditional view of self-directed learning as being confined to the mode of instruction and focusing, instead, on the defining personality characteristics of individuals who initiate and persist in learning through various modes, the present study presents a novel perspective to recent efforts to define self-directed learning.

The development of a valid and reliable tool to identify self-directed continuing learners has implications for practice, such as potential use as a screening tool to aid in the selection of individuals for various academic and continuing education programs.

The theoretical formulations underlying the OCLI and the development of the OCLI as a reliable and valid measuring tool provide a means for further investigation of self-directed learning, for example, studies of whether motivation to learn precedes or follows development of instrumental skills for learning, identification of antecedents for developing self-directed continuing learners, the effects of various types of feedback on the learning efforts of adults, and additional attributes associated with self-directed continuing learners.

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER An Historical Analysis of Correctional Education in Canada

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Canadian adult educators are focusing increased attention on the education of prison inmates, and debating the 'appropriate' type of educational intervention for this formerly neglected audience. While some studies have described existing programs of correctional education, few have analyzed the antecedents of the present system in order to explain how and why we have reached this point. The purpose of this paper is to trace the historical development of the concept of education in Canadian federal prisons from the 1830s to the early 1980s. The intent is not to describe in detail the types of courses or programs that may have existed at any given point in time, but rather to provide an overview, to identify themes or patterns of development, and to paint with broad strokes a picture of changing trends and issues. Extensive reading and analysis of secondary sources - Canadian social, political, economic, and educational history, as well as analyses of the philosophical and conceptual bases underlying education, prison systems and crime causation - provided the contextual framework. Research questions then formulated guided the entry into and analysis of the primary sources. Questions were formulated with the intent of situating the development of correctional education within the larger historical and environmental context, with a view to analyzing interconnections and nexes among variables. In order to more clearly observe patterns, trends, and issues as they emerged over time, the development of Canadian correctional education was analyzed in a chronological fashion, and the organization of the data reflected definite periods of Canadian history. The paper begins by examining the issues and events in early nineteenth century Canada which made possible the creation of an institution for a 'total education' - the penitentiary. The use of such an institution for dealing with the deviant members of Canadian society was a radical departure from former practice. The institution that was created was a product of a particular time and space, and reflected the attitudes and values of its creators. Central to its function was the concept of education. The role intended for education did not survive the shift from the theoretical, planning phase to the implementation phase. Throughout the hundred and fifty year history of Canadian federal prisons, the concept of education shifted and changed, influenced by factors both internal and external to the prisons. The linking of education with the objective of inmate reformation and rehabilitation tied its fortune, conceptually, to that of the reformation goal. External influences, such as the development of education in the Canadian society, the impact of Confederation, immigration, industrialization, World Wars, the rise of the behavioural sciences, and the burgeoning of technology, also contributed to the changing concept of education inside federal prisons. The recurrent, and often cyclical, nature of the themes and trends in Canadian correctional education become evident. To better understand the current state of education in Canadian federal prisons, this analysis of its antecedents links past to present. It also challenges planners of correctional education programs to consider the past in mapping future directions.

An Historical Analysis of Correctional Education in Canada

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INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the Study

"Correctional education had its beginnings before we were a nation, when the provincial jail of Upper Canada opened its doors at Kingston, in 1835" (Weir, 1973, p. 39). Today, almost one hundred and fifty years later, correctional education continues in Canadian federal prisons, with program offerings ranging from literacy training to university courses, along with a variety of technical and vocational programs. But how did we reach this point? It is enough to know that the domain of contemporary correctional education is concerned with both the academic and vocational spheres; to be content to elucidate what is, and perhaps use this as a base for discussing what should be? This writer would argue that in order to better understand the way in which education is currently viewed in federal corrections, and to effectively plan for the future, it is imperative to understand its antecedents.

The purpose of this paper is to trace the historical development of education in Canadian federal prisons, not with a view to describing in detail the types of courses or programs that may have existed at any given point in time, but rather to provide an overview, to identify themes or patterns of development, and to paint with broad strokes a picture of changing trends and issues.

To wrench events from their historical context detaches them from other occurrences within the context of which they must be interpreted, and the writer runs the risk of applying - or seeming to apply - contemporary mores and values to the interpretation of past events. The development of education in Canadian federal prisons cannot be totally removed from Canadian educational history, nor from the history of the social development of Canada. Similarly, correctional education cannot be abstracted from the environmental context within which it takes place. This attempt to trace the roots of the present-day program of correctional education considers in its analysis both the historical and the environmental context. Because of space constraints, this paper will be limited to summarizing the development of Canadian correctional education, with reference to pertinent events in Canadian history which helped to shape it. As well, the most salient, recurring themes and trends will be outlined.

Definitions

The terms correctional education, adult education in prison, prison education, inmate education and education of prisoners are used interchangeably, and refer to the adult education (as defined below) that is carried out in a prison setting. The term adult education is defined as:

> the process by which men and women (alone, in groups, or in institutional settings) seek to improve themselves or their society by increasing their skill, knowledge, or sensitiveness; or it is any process by which individuals, groups, or institutions try to help men and women improve in these ways (Houle, 1974, p. 32).

Conceptual Background

The possible roles of correctional education are mediated by philosophies, theories, and concepts underlying the criminal justice system as well as the educational system. An awareness of the conceptual and philosophical bases relevant to correctional education is vital to an understanding of its development. In this research, the interplay among objectives of imprisonment, theories of the causes of criminal behaviour, philosophies of adult education and purposes of correctional education is considered.

METHODOLOGY

Having established the existence of an adequate data base, sources were analyzed with a view to answering certain questions. These included: What was the role of education when the penitentiary was first conceived of and built? What was its role throughout the penitentiary's operation? How, when and why did the concept of correctional education shift and change? In what ways was correctional education mediated by the prison environment and by the historical development of the penitentiaries? Moving to the larger context, what issues and events in the historical development of Canada had an impact on correctional education? Questions were formulated with the intent of situating the development of correctional education within the larger context, with a view to analyzing relationships, interconnections and nexes.

Extensive reading from the literature of Canadian social, political, economic and educational history as well as analyses of the philosophical and conceptual bases underlying education, prison systems, and crime causation, provided an understanding of the context within which the primary sources would be analyzed. In studying the primary source materials, traditional documentary analysis was followed, since it seemed to offer the means to interpret and illuminate the historical record relating to correctional education.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF CANADIAN CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION

The roots of the present system of correctional education can be traced back to their beginnings with the opening of the first penitentiary at Kingston in 1835. The emergence of specialized institutions for dealing with offenders in the early 1800s was a response to social problems and conditions, and reflected the attitudes and values of Upper Canadians at that time, as well as influences from Europe and the United States.

In the planning of the first penitentiary, the concept of education was central. It was not at first manifested by the provision of programs peripheral to the mainstream of institutional activities, as it became later; rather, it was inherent in every aspect of the penitentiary's functions. The penitentiary - acclaimed as a means for transforming deviants into acceptable members of society - modelled the 'total education' of offenders on examples from the larger society. The acquisition of skills and work habits would come from hours of hard labour, while routine and regimentation would instil a sense of organization and control. Religious instruction and solitary confinement would provide the stimuli for the self-growth possible through contemplation and introspection - a respected approach to seeking knowledge in the liberal education tradition. Most importantly, as role models, penitentiary staff would epitomize appropriate values and attitudes to be emulated by inmates. The aggregate of institutional influences - a microcosm of the informal education taking place on the outside - would deliberately be arranged in such a way that transformation of the offender would automatically and inevitably follow.

This attempt to transform offenders through a 'total education' was a complete and dismal failure. Striving to salvage some vestige of the original ideal, the concept of education came to be equated with learning to read - not for the acquisition of reading skills per se, but simply to facilitate access to the Word of God, and promote personal reform through religious conversion. By the mid-nineteenth century, however, the secularization of education was becoming apparent, although religion continued to be an important component. The provision of an elementary education was becoming more common in the Upper Canadian society, with the rudiments - reading, writing and arithmetic - forming the curriculum. In the penitentiary, secular education was also seen as having value and the three Rs became the norm until the turn of the century. The passionate belief in the good to be accrued from the development of the intellect was evident, since unlike the larger Canadian society where the elementary education was directed to children, within the penitentiary, adults, too, were the target group.

By the end of the nineteenth century, industrialization and massive immigration, especially in the western provinces, had an impact on education, both inside and outside the penitentiaries. With a large influx of non-English-speaking prisoners, the educational emphasis came to be put on literacy training, and this remained the focus for some time. The demand for trades training surfaced early in the twentieth century, when the industrialization of Canada drew attention to the lack of skilled workers. In prisons, however, the enthusiasm for industrialization translated into recommendatons for a factory system of production rather than focusing on vocational training.

After World War I, the fervour for adult education to create an educated Canadian citizenry penetrated the walls of the penitentiary to some degree, evidenced by opportunities for correspondence and university extension courses. The growth of adult education in Canadian society during the 1920s and 1930s was not reflected in the prisons until quite some time later, however, when it was illustrated in the recommendations of the 1938 Archambault Report. Influenced by the progressivist philosophy of education then prevalent, this report proposed a comprehensive program of adult education encompassing social, cultural, health and religious, as well as academic and vocational education. The implementation of many of these programs, however, became the responsibility of behavioural science professionals, not educators.

Following World War II, the interest in technical and vocational training increased dramatically, and this was reflected in the penitentiary's educational emphases. An emphasis on vocational training, with academic education seemingly subordinated to it, continued throughout the 1950s and most of the 1960s. The virtual explosion of knowledge in the 1970s and the resultant burgeoning of educational programs was reflected in the penitentiaries, where there was a dramatic increase in both the number and type of educational programs.

RECURRING PATTERNS, THEMES, AND TRENDS

In analyzing the 'fit' of correctional education within federal prisons over time, the most important theme to consider is its relationship to particular goals or objectives of the prisons. Until recent years, correctional education has been bound up with the objectives of reformation and rehabilitation. The importance - or lack of it - of correctional education was not tied to the perceived value or worth of academic education or vocational training per se, but rather to the relative emphasis of the goal to which it was attached - that of reforming or rehabilitating the inmate.

In planning for the first penitentiary in the early 1800s, the central objective was the re-forming of the inmates into God-fearing, industrious, law-abiding citizens. A key factor in this tranformational process was the provision of appropriate role models. The failure of correctional workers to epitomize values and attitudes worthy of emulation marked the advent of a theme that would continue throughout the history of Canadian corrections - the crucial issue of the selection and training of penitentiary staff.

Moving to the implementation phase of the penitentiary, the status of the reform objective plummeted. By extension, programs tied to this objective were also seen as marginal. After Confederation, particularly, the use of the penitentiary system as a social control mechanism was accelerated, and the institutional priorities reflected the objectives of retribution, deterrence and incapacitation, not reformation. In spite of the impassioned appeals of prison reformers during the latter part of the nineteenth and early decades of the twentieth century, it was not until the Archambault Report of 1938 that the objectives of reformation and rehabilitation gained widespread attention again. In spite of the official recommitment to the reformation objective, however, and the resultant increase in the variety and types of correctional education programs, the relative status of correctional education did not soar to high priority. With the advent of the 'medical model' of corrections, greatest recognition was given to programs designed to deal with the psychological and sociological deficiencies of the inmates; correctional education was limited by the scope of this model.

By the 1970s, the achievability of inmate reformation within the prison environment was questioned, and the responsibility of the Correctional Service of Canada to persue this objective was rejected. With correctional education no longer tied to the objective of rehabilitation, its raison d'etre would require a new conceptual anchor. Kidd (1981) suggested that a shift in perspective or paradigm would be required for analyzing the prison system and realigning priorities - a shift that would recognize that "the entire total prison enterprise and culture is an educative one" (p.64). Coinciding with this ideal is Cosman's (1981) proposal that an educational model, which assumes deficits in learning, should underlie correctional education programs.

In addition to the pattern which tied the fortunes of correctional education to the shifting emphasis on prisoner reformation, other patterns and themes have also been apparent. As one of the 'treatment' programs, correctional education was drawn into a cyclical pattern involving crisis and crisis resolution. Beginning in 1848, a pattern emerged whereby a crisis - usually in the form of inmate unrest or riots - would trigger an inquiry or investigation, which in turn resulted in recommendations for change. Such recommendations would inevitably emphasize the creation of new 'treatment' programs, or the renewal of existing ones. Recommendations would be followed by a flurry of activity, which would in turn eventually subside into inertia and complacency, and the cycle would begin again.

Another constant theme highlighted the crucial role of advocates of correctional education. With education and training programs clearly not part of the institutional priorities, their survival depended on the dedication and perseverance of committed individuals and groups to manoeuvre for their survival and perpetuation.

A further theme - that of regional and local diversity - recurs throughout the history of correctional education. While in Canadian history this theme is certainly not unique to correctional institutions, it had - and still has - a decided impact on the national coordination of programs of correctional education. Regionalism was apparent by the 1870s, and a century later the OISE Review (1978) stated that the standards of academic and vocational education, as well as the goals, objectives and administration of education programs, still varied greatly throughout the regions and from prison to prison.

Since the beginning of the federal penitentiary system, a debate has flourished about the appropriate purpose of prison education. Education for the moral reformation of inmates has been one objective, while a second one has focused on economic concerns and stresses education to enhance employability. A third purpose has nothing to do with improving the inmates' skills or knowledge in any way, but rather focuses on the value of education to the institution as a dynamic security measure (OISE Review, 1978).

CONCLUSION

This paper has attempted to provide a brief overview of the development of correctional education and add to the understanding of the present system through an examination of its antecedents. The recurring and often cyclical nature of themes, trends, and issues have been a part of Canadian correctional education from its inception. The interconnections and nexes between the development of correctional education and the historical development of Canada are also important.

Contemporary correctional educators will recognize that many current controversies and concerns are rooted in the past. Throughout the hundred and fifty year history of correctional education, the core issue has centred on the question of its appropriate theoretical and conceptual base. The challenge of present planners of correctional education is to consider the patterns of its history, and to incorporate this knowledge in mapping its future direction.

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ABSTRACT

THE REPERTORY GRID IN GROUP ORIENTED LEARNING SITUATIONS:

CONSTRUING THE CONSTRUCTIONS OF OTHERS

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George Kelly's (1955) Psychology of Personal Constructs is a formally stated psychological theory comprising a fundamental postulate and eleven corollaries: it also subtends a methodological outgrowth--the Role Construct Repertory Grid Technique (or Rep Grid). The purpose of the research described here was: to evaluate the use of the Rep Grid in a Group Oriented Learning Situation, and in particular to explore the progressive refinement of a Consensus Grid as a team building device. A secondary objective was to explicate the theoretical relevance of Kelly's theory in terms of how members of an in-tact work group construe each others' construction processes.

The project involved individual administration of a Kelly Repertory Grid to each member of a professional support group working within a post-secondary educational institution. Each respondent was encouraged to reflect on the dimensions of his working relationships with all other members of the group.

The data obtained were subjected to a two-way cluster analysis using Thomas and Shaw's FOCUS program, and this reordered data then formed the basis of two related educational interventions.

In the first, each respondent was given a copy of his restructured grid, and invited to reflect on the relationships and values which were embedded therein. In particular, they were requested to search for clusters of constructs which might underlie their construing of relationships at work, and to consider their views of themselves and their co-workers.

In the second step, respondents were presented with a composite list of all constructs generated by all participants and, in a group setting, invited to clarify the meanings they attributed to each construct dimension. They were requested to distil out of the composite list 15 constructs which then formed the basis of a second repertory grid elicitation. A high degree of discussion, negotiation and team building ensued from this sharing, with dramatically enhanced team effectiveness, job satisfaction and sense of individual and collective purpose.

The methodology used in the study has been applied successfully in settings as diverse as elementary education, teacher training, industrial and management training, trainer training, learning to learn, educational administration and various forms of professional and para-professional staff development. It is relatively simple and fool-proof, and is entirely congruent with notions of responsible, experience-based adult learning. There is a large and expanding research base for the use of Kelly's Psychology of Personal Constructs in Adult Education and the project described here points the way to the further use of the Repertory Grid Technique in both Individually Oriented and Group Oriented learning situations.

The repertory grid in group oriented learning situations:

Construing the constructions of others.

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Introduction

Although all learning is by definition an individual matter, it does not by any means always occur alone. Indeed, much learning in both consciously mediated *formal* and unplanned or *incidental* settings, occurs in groups, and concerns (either directly or indirectly) human relationships. From time to time, people who work together seek to clarify elements of their working relationships, and to undertake planned change. This is one of the many facets of adult education.

In the project described here, an in-tact work group comprising six professionals working together in a post-secondary educational institution, decided voluntarily to undertake a series of activities designed to promote team development and to clarify elements of their collective working relationships. The first author was engaged as a consultant to devise and implement a program of interventions with the aim of describing the climate or ecology of the working environment, and of facilitating any group oriented change process deemed appropriate by the participants. A pattern of interdependent and mutually supporting approaches was decided on, including the administration of Kelly's Repertory Grids (or Repgrids) to all members of the group. The purpose of the research described here was to evaluate the use of the Repgrid in a group oriented learning situation, and in particular to explore the progressive refinement of a consensus grid as a team building device. A secondary objective was to explicate the theoretical relevance of Kelly's theory in terms of how members of a work group construe each others' construction processes.

Theoretical background

One of the most significant organizational development techniques to come out of the 1950s was the concept of Team Building. Several approaches evolved, each with its underlying assumptions regarding purposes, the role of participants, and procedures best suited to bring about stronger cohesion and productivity within a working team. For example, Blake and Mouton (1975) describe five distinct approaches, each dealing with a different aspect of team development, and ascribing different roles to the participants, including any external consultant; yet all five approaches have the same ultimate purpose - to improve productivity and personal satisfaction within the work setting.

Team bulding is not a simple affair. Within organizations, there exists a complex web of interrelationships and interdependencies among people, machines and processes. Members of the organization are constantly engaged in a dynamic process of adjustment with people controlling processes and processes controlling people. The resultant "socio-technical system" (Bradford and Cohen, 1984) must recognise the interdependent nature of all the elements and the delicately balanced ecology which strives to maintain a harmony between the collective goals of the organization and the individual goals of

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the people working therein. Moreover, this web of interrelated elements exists within an equally complex and diverse environment.

Central to the effectiveness of such human organizations is the concept of role theory (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Katz and Kahn link organizational and individual levels by making explicit the socio-psychological processes by which organizational roles are defined and role behavior evoked within the organization. More specifically, they view the organization as a system of roles, and suggest that:

> To a considerable extent, the role expectations held by members of a role set--the prescriptions and proscriptions associated with a particular office--are determined by the broader organizational context. The technology of the organization, the structure of its subsystems, its formal policies, and its rewards and penalties dictate in large degree the content of a given office. What the occupant of that office is supposed to do, with and for whom, is given by these and other properties of the organization itself.

(Katz & Kahn, 1978, p. 196)

Despite the apparent clarity of roles in this view, however, individuals construe their role functions (and those of others) in particular ways, depending upon many personal and situational variables. Thus, to understand the behavior of any member of an organizational team, we must regard the team from the vantage point of that individual. In other words, each individual responds to the organization or, at this level, to the team, in terms of his or her construction of it, a subjective or psychological organization that will differ in various ways from other team members' constructions of that same 'objective' reality (Nystedt, 1981). It is this orientation toward understanding "team" and membership within team, that led the researchers to the Personal Construct Psychology of Kelly as a theory base for the team building intervention.

In 1955, after more than twenty years as a counselling psychologist and academic, George Kelly published his two volume Psychology of personal constructs. It was, and still is, quintessentially a theory of role occupancy, and "the concept of role is equally central to the methodology (Role Construct Repertory Test and grid) and the therapeutic technique (Fixed-Role Therapy) associated with the theory" (Bannister & Mair, 1968, 9. 25). In many respects, it was ahead of its time, and Kelly's work lay comparatively unrecognised for a further 21 years until 1976, when it became the focal point of the Nebraska Symposium on Motivation. Since then, there have been five International Conferences, and a number of national conferences, workshops and seminars, focussing on his work; an International clearinghouse has been established with over 400 members and regional representatives in various parts of the world; there has been a steady volume of research in Universities throughout the world based on his work; and there is a burgeoning literature of books, articles and research papers which is reported in an annual reading list compiled by the clearinghouse.

Apart from the elegance and completeness of his theory, one of the factors which has led to this spectacular increase in interest in personal construct psychology is its congruence with recent trends in phenomenological and constructivist research paradigms. Moreover, as explained later in this paper, there are methodological outgrowths which are relatively foolproof and easy to administer, and indeed for many people it is these methodological correlates (in particular the repgrid) which first attracted them to Kelly's work.

The psychology of personal constructs is a formally stated theorem. It comprises three basic assumptions, a fundamental postulate, and eleven corollaries, each of which is elaborated in turn by Kelly. It is explicitly based on explaining the *real* attitudes, thoughts and behaviours of *real* people in *real* situations, and is derived from extensive counselling and teaching experience, rather than from laboratory experimentation. In the thirty years since it was first published, however, every aspect of the theory has been exhaustively and minutely examined, with the consequent development of an impressive research literature. However, it was not this alone which attracted us to Kelly's work, so much as the theory's elegance, parsimony, explanatory power and, if we are to be honest, its congruence with our own value position (Coan, 1980).

Essentially, Kelly argues that *people's psychological processes are channelized by the ways in which they anticipate events.* He holds that personal systems of meaning comprise an elaborate and complexly interlinked hierarchical structure consisting of dichotomised pathways or constructs. These constructs derive from our experience, and they cause us to construe experiences, as they befall us, in predictable and regular ways. According to Kelly, no two people have exactly the same construct systems, since they cannot have had identical bases of experience, and accordingly, no two people construe (or make sense of) reality in precisely the same way. However, accepting this point of view, we do not need to embrace what Lakoff and Johnson (1980) call the 'myth of subjectivism' entirely; we do have sufficient experience in common to be able to share at least some meanings, and our systems of personal constructs are what permit us to communicate with one another, to create cultural systems, languages and so on. This is as true of large groups, such as tribes, communities and nations, as it is of smaller groups like families and work teams.

When Kelly first articulated his theory of personal constructs, he was confronted with the very real difficulties of assessing or measuring them. By his own admission, each person's construct system is unique and idiosyncratic, and this leads to the logical difficulty of trying to enter into such private universes using the crude tools of language and common experience. To get round this perplexity, Kelly devised the Role Construct Repertory Grid Technique, which was originally used to assist clients to construe their social relationships.

Kelly generated a list of 19 'significant others' in terms of whom the client might be expected to judge or value him or herself. This included Father, Mother, Brother, Sister, Spouse, Best Friend, Ex Friend, Pitied Person, Rejecting Person, Ethical Person, Successful Person and so on. Into these categories, the client placed the names of personally significant people, and Kelly then proceeded to explore how they were viewed by the client in relation to each other, and in relation to the client him or herself. As Kelly himself mentioned, and others have since reiterated, the inclusion of *Self* as an element in this process is a powerful means of identifying how a respondent views him or herself on personally meaningful criteria, and has the potential at least to point the way to significant personal change in desired directions.

Kelly had earlier operationally defined a construct as the way in which two things were similar and thereby different from a third or more things, and this definition provided the basis of his elicitation procedure. He would simply confront the client with three of the descriptors chosen from the array, and ask them to nominate the similarity and difference. These became the two poles or ends of the personal construct, and it was then a comparatively simple matter to have the client rate or rank all the people in the array along that and other (similarly elicited) dimensions. This process, known as the *triadic elicitation procedure*, yields a matrix which embodies a good deal of information about how the respondent views him or herself, and significant others, on construct dimensions which are generated by each client independently. The rep grid is also susceptible to a variety of statistical manipulations

(Fransella & Bannister, 1977) which reveal the underlying structure of the respondent's construct system, and such data can be 'fed back' to the person who completed the grid as a form of cognitive mirror.

Methodology

In the present intervention, and as already mentioned in this paper, the repertory grid was utilised as one of a range of techniques to explore the qualitative dimension of relationships within a work team, from the point of view of the team members themselves. In this present case, the elements to be construed included the respondent himself (all were men), all the other members of the team, and the descriptors: 'good co-worker', 'bad co-worker', 'good manager' and 'bad manager'. These descriptors were not intended to apply to the present cohort, but in fact were utilised as a device to ensure that constructs elicited were truly bipolar (i.e. even if there were only minor differences within the present team as viewed by each respondent, the use of such extremes in the range ensures the emergence of personally meaningful and clearly defined construct poles).

Grids were elicited individually by the researchers, each interview lasted for approximately 1 1/2 hours (longest duration 2 hours, shortest interview 1 1/4 hours). An average of 15 constructs was elicited from each team member, leading to a possible total of 90 different construct dimensions for the entire group, though not unexpectedly there subsequently proved to be a degree of commonality between constructs utilised by various members of the team.

These individually elicited grids were subjected to a two-way cluster analysis, using Thomas and Shaw's FOCUS program (1976). This program reorganises the grid--rows and columns--in such a way that each element is placed next to the element which has been ranked most alike by the respondent. Similarly, each construct is placed next to that construct with most similar scores on all elements. No attempt is made by the program to determine the degree of literal similarity of adjacent elements and constructs, but it is assumed that if constructs are applied to elements in identical or very similar ways, they probably reflect a common underlying mode of discrimination. This assumption is reviewed at later stage, in consultation with the respondent. The FOCUS program also computes the degree of match between adjacent constructs and adjacent elements and, thereby, through the progressive collapsing of categories, two dendrograms are produced, one for each axis. These serve as a guide to the degree of clustering or structuring of meanings within the grid.

The focussed grids were returned individually to the respondents who were invited to reflect on the relationships and values embedded therein. In particular, they were requested to search for clusters of constructs which might underlie their construing of relationships at work, and to consider their views both of themselves and of their co-workers. Part of the total intervention strategy also included a residential 'retreat', where the respondents were encouraged to disclose as much, or as little, of their individual grids as they felt comfortable in doing, with the intention of clarifying uncertainties, and generating a consensus grid.

Reliability

The study reported here is exploratory. Hence, it is impossible to comment with any certainty on the reliability of the findings derived from the use of Kelly's

Repertory Grid. Indeed, Kelly himself argued that, in many instances, reliability was a measure of the 'insensitivity' of an instrument to measure actual changes. Thus, in a test/retest situation, the obtaining of identical data may well reflect the inability of the instrument to detect change, rather than its inherent stability over time.

The dimension explored here, namely attitudes, values and beliefs about working relationships, is a notoriously labile one. Moreover, it was the explicit purpose of the intervention not only to measure this dimension, but to encourage critical reflection and, where appropriate, change. It is thus unrealistic to expect a test/retest to reveal comparable data except, perhaps, in the most basic structure of each respondent's construct system.

Validity

As for validity, the skill of the interviewer accounts for much of the variance in the content validity of the results obtained. The repertory grid has high construct validity, and produces data which are entirely congruent with the theoretical position postulated by Kelly. The fact that this technique was utilised in conjunction with other data gathering devices (observation, interview, Myers Briggs, etc) allows us to be confident of its concurrent validity. Both at the time of the administration and in a follow-up interview some months later, respondents vouched for the face validity of the procedure.

Concerning the statistical procedures applied to the data, the validity of the process is dealt with in the FOCUS program manual (Thomas & Shaw, 1976). Moreover, the greatest safeguard against distortion or loss of meaning resides in the procedure of returning reordered grids to the respondents for comment. No respondent indicated that he believed his grid had been misrepresented as a result of the internal reorganization of data, and several were favorably impressed by the additional meanings revealed through the process of clustering.

Findings

Whilst much of the literature pertaining to the grid as a learning device is explicitly individual, there is a nascent research tradition concerning its use in negotiating shared meaning (Thomas, McKnight & Shaw, 1976; Pope & Keen, 1981). The practical utility of the rep grid as an instrument in the facilitation of communication between team members was borne out by several comments in interviews conducted three months after the retreat. In general, members said it constituted an essential part of the total intervention but its particular value lay in facilitating follow-up activities concerning how they construed each other, and how these constructions cluster around the concepts of "good manager" and "good worker". As one participant put it, "Going through the constructs was the most useful activity. It was a very valuable session. X and I spent two hours after the retreat going through our constructs. It's important to see how and why we see each other so differently."

From a theoretical point of view, three corollaries were found to be particularly pertinent through this study. First, the individuality corollary which holds that *persons differ from each other in their construction of events*. This was clearly demonstrated by the extensive and diverse range of constructs generated across a "common" set of people, many of whom had worked together for more than seven years.

Yet, a commonality of perception also emerged from the collective list of constructs. While it was assumed (and verified through construct elicitation) that individuals would construe themselves and members of the team in quite different ways, it was also assumed that there existed enough commonality of purpose and role definition to support the commonality corollary, which reads: *To the extent that one person employs a construction of experience which is similar to that employed by another, his processes are psychologically similar to those of the other person.* It is hardly surprising to find a degree of commonality amongst a group of people who not only work together, but tend to share similar professional training and work experience.

In combination with this, it became clear that the more interdependent the roles of members, the more they would be obliged to make sense of each others' perspectives. Thus, the sociality corollary emerged as an important aspect of team building: *To the extent that one person construes the construction processes of another, he may play a role in a social process involving the other.* Functional interdependency rests upon this corollary.

Conclusion

It is fundamental to the constructivist view that the environment can never be directly known, and that "conception determines perception". One of the main assumptions here was that each team member's perception of how the team functioned would be neither a copy, nor even a mirror, of reality, but rather a personally constructed understanding based on individual experience. It was further assumed that these individual perceptions could be "disembedded" from the total construct system through the use of Kelly's Repertory Grid Technique.

This research has demonstrated clearly the potential both of Kelly's theoretical position, and of the repgrid technique in a group oriented adult learning situation and, as Kelly pointed out, given our present state of knowledge in psychology, that is probably as much as we can reasonably hope for: "We are not in search of...a neat conclusion, but of a strategic advantage in the a long term search for understanding. No theory can offer us more than that." (Kelly, 1970)

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER Factors in attributions for success and failure among Anglo, Black, Hispanic and Native American Community College Students.

AUTHOR Mark H. Rossman and Stephen Powers

Low achieving Anglo, Black, Hispanic and Native American community college students were administered the Multidimensional-Multiattributional Causality Scale developed by Lefcourt et al in order to examine attributions of academic success and failure to ability, effort, context and luck. The four ethnic groups were similar in their attributions of success to external causes (Factor I), and of success to internal causes (Factor II). On Factor III (attribution of failure), Blacks and Native Americans were similar, as were Anglos and Hispanics. The total population of 399 (self-reported) consisted of 48 Blacks, 78 Hispanics, 112 Native Americans and 101 Anglo (non-Hispanic Caucasians).

ATTRIBUTIONS FOR SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT OF LOW-ACHIEVING INDIAN AND CAUCASIAN COMMUNITY COLLEGE STUDENTS[1]

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Running head: Attributions

SUMMARY

Low achieving Anglo, Black, Hispanic, and Native American community college students (N=399) were administered the Multidimensional-Multiattributional Causality Scale in order to examine attributions of academic success and failure to abililty, effort, context, and luck. The four ethnic groups were similar in their attributions of success to external causes (Factor I), and of success to internal causes (Factor II). On Factor III (attribution of failure) Blacks and Native Americans were similar, as were Anglos and Hispanics.

A. INTRODUCTION

Considerable research has focused on the locus of control of Hispanic, Black, and Anglo high school students (e.g., 1, 2, 6, 7, 8, 11, 15). Higher education locus of control research has focused more on cross-national comparisons of students than ethnic group comparisons (10). Several aspects of locus of control have focused on use of power (3), cultural conformity (5), and affective emotions (12).

The purpose of the present study is to extend previous research in school achievement locus of control by comparing the factor structure of low achieving Native American, Black, Hispanic, and Anglo community college students. It is hypothesized that ethnic differences will exist in community college students, and these differences will be found in the factor structure of these four ethnic groups.

B. METHOD

The Ss were 399 college students (mean age = 19.3) enrolled in remedial reading classes in a large, urban, multi-campus southwestern community college system. The Ss (self reported) consisted of 48 Blacks, 78 Hispanics, 112 Native Americans and 101 Anglos (non-Hispanic Caucasians). In the Spring of 1983, Ss were administered the Multidimensional-Multiattributional Causality Scale (MMCS) (13) which consists of eight 3-item subscales designed to measure (a) the attributions of success to ability, effort, context, or luck and (b) the attributions of failure to lack of ability, lack of effort, context, or bad luck. The Kuder-Richardson formula 20 reliability of the MMCS for this sample was .75 (14).

Separate principal factor analyses with multiple R^2 as initial communality Americans. For each group three factors were extracted with eigenvalues greater than one and rotated to an orthogonal (Varimax) criterion of simple structure. Factors were compared using the coefficient of congruence with .90 or higher indicating factorial similarity. This procedure was supplemented by Cattell's salient variable similarity index(5), a nonparametric measure of factorial similarity (4). An important assumption of the coefficient of congruence is that the variances are equal across groups and/or across variables. Violations of the assumptions regarding the covariance matrix may distort the distribution of the coefficient of congruence. If the coefficient of congruence and S are both significant, then that would provide strong supportive evidence of factorial similarity.

C. RESULTS

Three factors were extracted accounting for 67.8%, 63.0%, 68.1%, and 62% of the variances in Anglos, Blacks, Hispanics, and Native Americans, respectively. The rotated factor loadings for the four groups are shown in Table 1.

Insert Table 1 about here

Factor I appeared to be similar across groups. The coefficient of congruence between Native Americans and Blacks was .95 and between Native Americans and Hispanics was .90. The median coefficients of congruence for other combinations of ethnic groups on Factor I was .845 (range .83 to .85). Since these coefficients were below the .90 criterion, the factor comparisons were examined with the S-index. All S-indices were significant at the .05 level, which indicated similar factors.

The standard error of a factor loading (9) was calculated for each ethnic group in order to determine the factor loadings which would be interpreted; they were .39, .58, .45, and .38 for the Anglos, Blacks, Hispanics, and Native Americans, respectively. Only those loadings greater than the standard errors were interpreted. On Factor I, Anglos, Blacks, Hispanics, and Native Americans had significant loadings on the two subscales which measured attributions of success to a favorable context or to good luck. Since the context of an event and luck are external causes, this Factor I was named Attributions of Success to External Causes.

The coefficient of congruence on Factor II between Anglos and Native Americans was .96 and between Anglos and Hispanics was .90. The median coefficients of congruence of the other combinations of ethnic groups was .79 (range .61 to .87). The S-indices computed among Anglo, Hispanic, and Native American indicated a similar structure. The factor structure of the Black students appeared to be different from the other three groups.

The Hispanic, Anglo, and Native American students had substantial factor loadings on attributions of success to effort and of success to ability. Since effort and ability are internal causes, Factor II was named Attributions of Success to Internal Causes. Although Blacks shared the attributions of success to internal causes, they appeared to differ with the other groups on this factor with notable loadings on the attributions of failure to ability and of failure to luck subscales.

The coefficient of congruence between Blacks and Native Americans was .84 and between Hispanics and Anglos was .86. The S-indices supported the factorial similarity of Factor III of those two groupings. On Factor III, it appeared that Blacks and Native Americans attributed failure to lack of effort. Hispanics and Anglos attributed failure to context. Factor III was called an Attribution of Failure factor.

D. DISCUSSION

Low-achieving Anglos, Blacks, Hispanics, and Native American community college students appeared to be similar in their attributions of academic success to external causes such as the context of an event and good luck. Anglos, Hispanics, and Native Americans were similar in their attributions of success to internal causes. Although Blacks were similar in attributions to internal causes, they also possessed an aspect of this second factor which included attributions of failure to lack of ability and bad luck. A different configuration appeared for the third factor. In the attribution of failure, Blacks and Native Americans had a similar structure with a strong loadings indicating attributions of failure to lack of effort. Hispanics and Anglos had a strong component indicating attributions of failure to the context of the event.

Attributions of academic success appear to exist with low achieving community college students in two independent (orthogonal) factorial dimensions--an external and an internal dimension. On a third dimension, Blacks and Native Americans appear to have a facet of attributions of failure to lack of effort. Since effort is perceived as within one's volitional control, expectancy of success is likely to remain constant. With Anglos and Hispanics, failure is attributed to an uncontrollable aspect (the context) and the result is the expectancy of future failure.

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FOOTNOTES

[1] An earlier version of this paper was presented at the first annual conference on Applied Psychological Issues: Minority Assessment, University of Arizona, Tucson, 1983. The authors would like to thank Robert Thomas and Charlotte Simonson for their assistance during the early stages of this study.

Table 1

Rotated Factor Loadings for Black(B), Hispanic(H), Native American(N), and Anglo(A) College Students

Attribution	Factor											
	1				2				3			
	B	H	N	A	B	H	N	A	B	H	N	A
Failure to effort	.01	-.04	-.01	.37	.06	.46	.27	.17	.70	-.02	.69	-.34
Failure to ability	.39	.36	.51	.50	.43	-.02	.39	.23	.15	.10	.15	-.04
Failure to context	.62	.11	.47	.00	.15	.02	.18	.03	-.18	.68	-.16	.67
Failure to luck	.38	.51	.67	.31	.41	-.26	-.01	-.12	-.34	.50	-.09	.34
Success to effort	-.03	.08	-.15	-.10	.56	.73	.79	.63	-.08	-.25	.20	-.02
Success to ability	.28	-.06	.11	.06	.72	.61	.58	.62	.15	.11	.04	-.06
Success to context	.64	.76	.59	.58	-.06	.05	-.06	-.17	.35	.05	.44	-.06
Success to luck	.82	.47	.76	.92	.25	-.05	-.17	-.12	-.04	.50	.28	.36

TITLE OF PAPER *Adult learners' interactions with learning situations: A theoretical perspective*

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Description of the Problem

If adult education is unique as a form of education, the nature of the adult learner is central to that uniqueness. While definitions of adult education vary in some important dimensions, they are consistent in inclusion of the adult learner. What are the characteristics of adults as learners and how do those characteristics influence the educational process? Knowles (1970) put forth a description of characteristics of the adult. Set under the subtitle "Andragogy versus Pedagogy," Knowles work became a focal point for debate. There were two primary issues which received considerable attention. First, are adults and children different as learners and if so what are those differences? Second, ought the teaching of adults to be different from the teaching of children and if so what are those differences? Cross (1981) compared and contrasted various perspectives in the ongoing debate. She concluded that the confusion begins with the nature of andragogy, and reviewed arguments developing it respectively as learning theory (Knowles), as a philosophical position (McKenzie), a political reality (Carlson), or a set of hypotheses subject to scientific verification (Elias). In each of the arguments a central issue seems to emerge--the adult *versus* the child as learner.

The arguments seem to have bypassed what may be a more critical line of analysis for adult educators. What characteristics of adults influence their response in teaching/learning interactions, how may those characteristics be found to vary among adults, and how does that variation affect the interaction? For adult educators, it is important to understand the range of variations among the clients we serve, and through such understanding, to develop the practice of adult education. These questions seem more crucial than to continue debate of adult/child differences which treat each in their homogeneity rather than in their diversity. Knowles (1980) view of adult characteristics in terms of "becoming" rather than as a static condition offers more to the inquiry about the adult as a learner than do the dichotomous arguments, child versus adult, andragogy versus pedagogy.

Adult Learner/Educator Interaction

The andragogical assumptions have been treated by many practitioners as prescriptive for practice. That is, the behaviors which flow from the assumptions constitute the "right way" to practice adult education. The extent to which that may be true has not been empirically demonstrated. If the assumption is valid that adults vary in development of andragogical characteristics as well as exhibit a wide range of other characteristics which could affect their responses as learners, is it reasonable to assume any one prescriptive set as the "right way" to teach adults?

Situations in which adults learn also are varied and complex. If the effect of educator assumptions on learner outcomes is to be studied, a unifying framework will

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be required and will include the point of interface or interaction between the educator and the learner. At a basic level the required chain of events might be as follows: The educator holds certain assumptions: the teaching behaviors are congruent with those assumptions: the learner perceives the behaviors to be facilitative of learning, and responds by learning. At any juncture in this linear description, the statement can be rephrased as a research question. Given certain educator assumptions about the adult learner, to what extent are teaching behaviors found to be congruent with those assumptions? Given certain educator behaviors, how are they construed and described by the adult learner? It is apparent in this simplistic example that the relationship between assumptions of the educator and outcome for the learner is not linear but rather is mediated through a complex set of factors involving interaction between the two individuals within a specific situation.

Studies which have demonstrated that adult educators support andragogical principles in their teaching (e.g. Beder & Darkenwald, 1982; Darkenwald, 1982) are important as beginning steps in understanding a complex phenomenon. Much more study is needed. How is the interactive process perceived and responded to by the learner? Are there learners and/or situations requiring different assumptions and teaching behaviors and, if so, what are they? In a given teaching/learning situation, different learners can be observed to respond differently. If the educator assumptions and behaviors are postulated to lead to predictable outcomes, how can those differences among learners be explained? Variations among learners as well as the teacher's assumptions and behavior are components in an interactive process within a situational context. The general purpose of this study is to gain understanding of the adult learner's experience as a participant in a learning situation which includes interaction with a teacher.

Theoretical Perspective

The problem, as it has been developed above, involves the perspective that adult education is an interactive process between the learner and the learning situation in which the educator is an important factor. Interactionism, as an area of theoretical formulation from a number of social science perspectives, offers a useful underlying framework for purposes of this study.

Kelly's (1955) theory of personal constructs posits that the most fundamental characteristic of human beings is their capacity to construe situations, to represent the external environment. Because people are free to construe the external situation, it can be construed by each in different ways (Nystedt, 1981). Interaction between the person and the environment is reciprocal. Not only do events affect the behavior of the person, but the person is an active agent who influences environmental events (Endler & Magnusson, 1976, p. 13).

James and Sells (1981) describe the construct, psychological climate, as individuals' cognitive representations of proximal environments, expressed in terms that represent personal or acquired meanings of those environments to the individuals. In effect, the environment that an individual "knows" is a product of various forms of filtering, abstractions, generalizations and interpretations.

Acknowledgment of the interactionist construct can be identified within the field of adult education. Houle stated, as the first of seven major assumptions, "Any episode of learning occurs in a specific situation and is profoundly influenced by that fact" (1972, p. 32). For each person, every activity is unique. For every situation, each person who shares in it, perceives it uniquely. Mezirow recommended "inductively formed generalizations with which educators can understand and predict behavior of adults in educational situations" (1971, p. 136). He identified the individual actively assigning meaning to the situation as a critical mediating process. Boyle defines reality "in the educational sphere as being mutual; that is, it neither lies in the learner alone nor in the instructional environment alone" (1981, p. 23). The relationship between educator and learner is viewed as reciprocal.

Methodological Perspective

The purposes of the study and the nature of the problem to be investigated suggest an interpretative research paradigm. In interpretative studies, the investigator is concerned with how the learner perceives, interprets, gives meaning to an experience.

A paradigm is described by Hunt (1975) as a way of thinking which determines what questions are asked, what observations are made, how data are analyzed, how results are represented, and the form of conclusions. He asserts that the interactionist perspective is a paradigm which differs from the traditional "general effects" paradigm. While many researchers have used interactionism as a theoretical construct, most of the resulting research has been methodologically within the general effects paradigm. He attributes disappointing results of earlier research, in part, to this choice of methodology.

The methodological perspective for the proposed study is, in summary, based on an organismic view of man, one who actively participates in construction of reality in the external world by his perceptions of it and by interacting with it. While both normative and interpretative designs are viewed as complementary means to achieve understanding, the design of choice for this study comes from the interpretative tradition.

The study design involves two phases, each generating a set of empirical data from different sources: A practical set derived from field observation and interviews, and a conceptual set derived from review of prior research. This presentation is limited to the conceptual data set which was obtained and analyzed to answer the question "What theoretical formulations have been used in prior research to explain adult learner/situation interaction?"

Analysis and Synthesis of Prior Research

Study Design

The purpose for conducting a research review goes beyond the usual descriptive literature summary. It is rather to extract as data from prior studies information which might expand understanding of the learner/situation interaction. Such data are not limited to the purposes of the primary research studies and include analysis of interactional concepts which were included as well as identification of some which may have been omitted from those studies.

Selection of studies for analysis included the following sources: (a) Comprehensive review of *Adult Education Quarterly* for the years 1979-1984; (b) ERIC search, 1979-1984, with descriptors -- adult education and research, educational theory and research, educational experience and research, and educational psychology and research;

and (c) review of Dissertation Abstracts in Adult Education for the years 1979-1984. Each selected title was read, and a decision for inclusion or exclusion was made. A "decision log" was maintained to document the rationale in each case. Further sources were identified by ancestry and descendency traces (Cooper, 1982). Ancestry traces are those studies which were cited or referenced in the original work, and descendency traces are those studies which later cited the original work as documented in *Citation Index*. Through this process it was possible to identify recent works within the context of their foundations as well as their contributions to continued exploration of adult education phenomena.

Nystedt's (1981) Person Situation Process Model was selected as a broad framework for organizing data and to facilitate the analysis of disparate research studies within an interactional perspective. The model distinguishes the distal situation, the situation as it is, from the proximal situation as perceived by the person. The proximal situation in the model represents that part of the total situation to which the person pays attention and includes all external factors that affect the person's responses. This means that one person's proximal situation can be different than another person's proximal situation independent of objective characteristics of the distal situation.

The person system in the model represents any selected individual interacting within the external situation and is composed of four systems. The *perceptual-cognitive structure* is the person's cognitive representation of the immediate external situation, as restructured by the person. The *abstract structure* refers to the person's life situation, or cognitive universe. It contains knowledge of the past, attitudes, opinions, categories, rules, and long-term expectations. It establishes a person's characteristic way of perceiving situations. The *momentary state* refers to transitory influences such as emotions, motivations, intentions, degree or intensity of involvement. Momentary states account for uncharacteristic ways of perceiving situations. The *input selector*, influenced by elements in the abstract structure and momentary states, is made up of the cues and observations selected as information from the distal situation.

Analysis of each selected source included brief description of methodology, and identification of implicit and explicit assumptions or theoretical formulations. Concepts used in the study were illustrated with the Person Situation Process Model superimposed to facilitate analysis in terms of light which might be shed on the nature of the learner/situation interaction. It was not intended to suggest that the original work ought to have used an interactionist theoretical framework but rather to ask "If these things be true," might they be explained as part of an interactive process between the learner and the situation? What questions might reasonably be posed regarding factors in the interaction which were not filled in by the study? What implications might be identified for a theoretical perspective on the learner/situation interactive process?"

An Abbreviated Example of Data and Analysis -- *Participation in Course Planning*

The complete analysis of one selected source cannot be presented within the space limitations of this report. Following is a condensation of one such analysis.

Rosenblum and Darkenwald (1983) studied the effect of participation in course planning on achievement and satisfaction. A post-test only, control group design was used in two field experiments. For the experimental groups planning was accomplished during the first class session, using Nominal Group Technique. The control groups were given the same class without participation in planning it. The authors assumed "positive outcomes because high priority needs are likely to be identified, relevant goals set, and a 'better' course designed, and because participation in decision making should engender feelings of ownership of the course and responsibility for its success" (p. 151). Results were not in support of greater achievement and satisfaction with participation. In fact, the control groups' scores for achievement and satisfaction were higher than the experimental groups in both experiments. Results were consistent with the "better course" rationale, but were inconsistent with the "feeling of ownership" argument. Figure 1 illustrates concepts developed by Rosenblum and Darkenwald with the interactive framework superimposed.

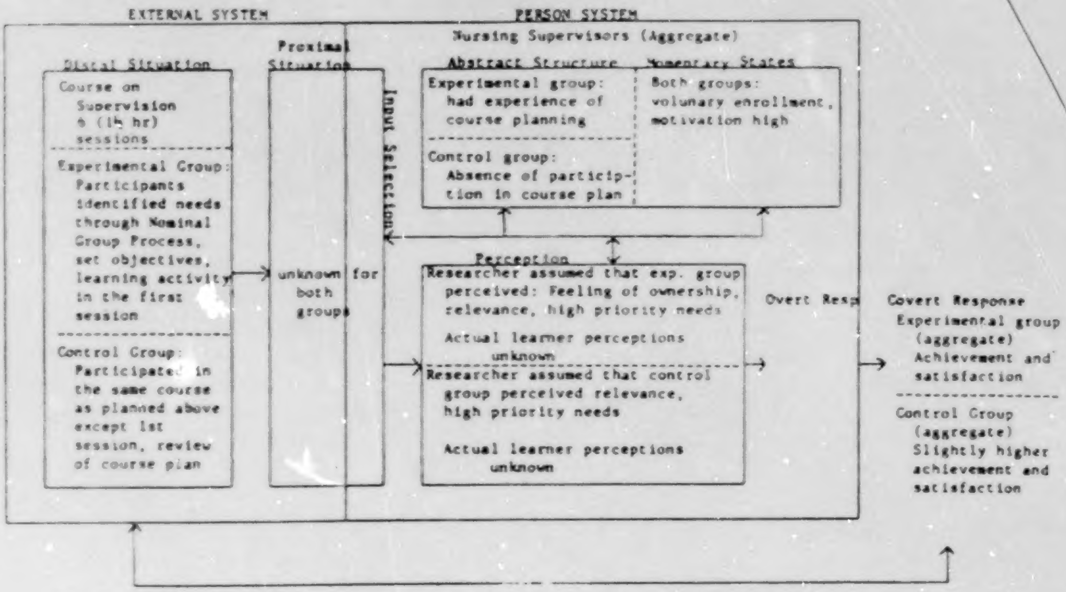
EXTERNAL SYSTEM
PERSON SYSTEM
Nursing Supervisors (Aggregate)
Distal Situation
Course on Supervision 6 (1½ hr) sessions
Experimental Group: Participants identified needs through Nominal Group Process, set objectives, learning activity in the first session
Control Group: Participated in the same course as planned above except 1st session, review of course plan
Proximal Situation
unknown for both groups
Input Selection
Abstract Structure
Experimental group: had experience of course planning
Control group: Absence of participation in course plan
Momentary States
Both groups: voluntary enrollment, motivation high
Perception
Researcher assumed that exp. group perceived: Feeling of ownership, relevance, high priority needs
Actual learner perceptions unknown
Researcher assumed that control group perceived relevance, high priority needs
Actual learner perceptions unknown
Overt Resp
Covert Response
Experimental group (aggregate) Achievement and satisfaction
Control Group (aggregate) Slightly higher achievement and satisfaction

Figure 1 Effects of adult learner participation in course planning on achievement and satisfaction as developed by Rosenblum and Darkenwald with interactive model superimposed

The study raises the question of what constitutes participation in planning and why it is effective if it is? The authors concluded that the results cast doubt on the "ownership" rationale. It seems reasonable to assume that a feeling of ownership would require the participant to perceive a significant involvement in the planning process. As the variable, "participation in planning" was conceptualized in this study, it is possible to question whether the participants perceived their activity to be, in fact, a significant contribution to planning. Could it be that a "feeling of ownership" is an important factor and simply did not occur in this study? Or that a "feeling of ownership" occurred for some individuals and not others, thus may be lost in the averaging effect of aggregate analysis. It is not possible to determine the perception of either the experimental or control group from the study report, yet that perception may have greater relationship with the outcome than participation or nonparticipation in planning as perceived by the investigator and carried out in this study.

Alternative explanations were offered. High motivation of all subjects may have overridden the effect of planning participation, or the subjects may have "viewed the opportunity to participate in course planning as relatively inconsequential." Conversely those who were not involved in planning may not have expected such involvement. These alternative explanations suggest that factors *within the individual* are critical to the response i.e. motivation, perception of the nature or importance of involvement, and expectation to be involved. Thus the act of "involving" on the part of the teacher may be seen to be mediated through a complex set of potential *variables* within the individual learner. Neither this complexity, nor the person variables, have been dealt with in any of the studies reviewed.

The presentation at the conference will briefly highlight the background perspective. Selected data sets and analyses will be presented and theoretical speculations will be put forward for discussion and critique.

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER: From Whence We Came: A Critical Examination of Selected Historical Literature of American Adult Education

AUTHOR: Burton R. Sisco

Selected historical literature of the American adult education movement in the 1920's and 1930's was examined to determine what key leaders of the movement saw as the meaning of adult education, its purpose(s), as well as the means through which the envisioned purpose(s) could be achieved. A number of common themes emerged from a content analysis of each selected work. Firstly, the education of adults was seen as valid and legitimate; learning should continue throughout life. Secondly, an educational philosophy that ignored adult learners was inadequate. Thirdly, changing conditions in society threatened the nation; adults, not children, must be prepared for intelligent living if the nation was to survive. Fourthly, schooling and education were not the same; schooling ended with commencement, whereas education was a give and take proposition involving life experiences. The 1920's and 1930's represent the "golden years" for American adult education when the movement became national in scope, developed a professional identity, and created a literature base. Perhaps no period in the development of the field since has there been such an outpouring of optimism and idealism tempered by pessimism and realism as there was during that time. Professional adult educators have been criticized at various times for not understanding their heritage. This study provides a glimpse into that heritage which hopefully will lead to a more informed profession today and tomorrow

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FROM WHENCE WE CAME: A CRITICAL EXAMINATION OF SELECTED HISTORICAL LITERATURE OF AMERICAN ADULT EDUCATION

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To even the most casual observer, the study of history typically evokes images of unrelenting boredom as facts and figures are studied and memorized. This is an unfortunate situation given the potential a firm understanding of history can have for the educated individual. In the field of adult education, numerous writers have criticized the paucity of knowledge most professional adult educators have of their history. Darkenwald (1976), for example, in a special bicentennial issue of Adult Education noted:

> The history of adult education has long been neglected both by professional historians and by scholars principally concerned with adult education itself. This neglect has, in my view, diminished our understanding of the present and impoverished our conceptions of the future. Adult education as a field of professional practice and disciplined inquiry can ill afford to lose touch with its historical roots, its traditions, and the forms and forces that have shaped its development. (p. 195)

In an effort to begin dealing with this problem, a research study was undertaken with the aim of critically examining selected historical literature of the adult education movement in the United States to determine its goals and purposes.

In the years immediately following World War I and up to the beginning of World War II, the adult education movement in the United States gained impetus. This period witnessed the introduction of the term adult education as the generic term to describe the educational activities of adults; the growth and development of two professional associations dealing with adult education - the American Association for Adult Education (AAAE) and the National Education Association, Department of Adult Education (NEA Department); and the beginnings of professional training for educators of adults at the university level. This same period also gave birth to numerous books and articles designed to articulate the aims, purposes, and practices of adult education. Indeed, the 1920's and 1930's were fervent times for the emerging adult education movement in the United States.

Of the many books about adult education that were published during this period, five stand out as significant in their attempt to identify the nature and purpose of adult education and to spread the importance of it in a rapidly changing world. These books, now classics in the field of adult education, are: Frederick P. Keppel, Education for Adults (1926); Eduard Lindeman, The Meaning of Adult Education (1926); Joseph K. Hart, Adult Education (1927); Dorothy Canfield Fisher, Why Stop Learning? (1927); and Alvin Johnson, Deliver Us From Dogma (1934). In each of these works, the authors sought to provide a conceptual foundation for the field through an analysis of the nature and aims of adult education. Each work is distinguished by a clarity of purpose and scope which sets it apart from much of the adult education literature today. The aim of this paper is to examine the goals and purposes of adult education through a content analysis of these five books. The work of each writer was analyzed to ascertain: 1) the meaning of adult education; 2) the purpose(s) of adult education; and 3) the means through which the envisioned purpose(s) for adult education could be achieved. The analysis of each work will be presented in order of publication.

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Keppel, Frederick P. Education For Adults. New York: Columbia University Press, 1926.

One of the earliest attempts to define adult education and to articulate its purpose in society came with the publication of Frederick Keppel's Education For Adults in 1926. The book is actually a collection of four essays either published or presented as keynote addresses during that same year. Keppel, or "FPK" as he was known by his friends, stands out as a significant leader and advocate of the early adult education movement in the United States. Following a distinguished career in higher education and public service, Keppel assumed the presidency of the Carnegie Corporation in October of 1923. Long an advocate of liberal education and lifelong learning, Keppel was greatly concerned with the low priority given to adults by the nation and the education leadership. Consequently, he initiated a number of studies aimed at determining the status of adult education in the United States. Keppel was also instrumental in the founding of the first national association for adult education, the American Association for Adult Education (AAAE) in 1926, and the development of the field over the next fifteen years until his retirement from Carnegie in 1941.

In this collection of essays, of which the first two deal specfically with adult education, Keppel defined and critiqued the burgeoning movement in an optimistic and enthusiastic manner. Flush with knowledge gained during the course of the development and organization of AAAE, Keppel presented the status of adult education in the United States and was obviously impressed with its growth and vigor. He wished there was a better term than "adult education" to describe the movement given its diffuse nature. Despite this problem, Keppel offered the following definition: "It is the process of learning, on the initiative of the individual, seriously and consecutively undertaken as a supplement to some primary occupation" (p. 11). Implied in his definition was the realization that learning is a continuous process, taken up whenever the individual's schooling has come to an end, or at any age thereafter. Keppel also noted the need to get rid of the idea that adult education was only for the benighted. For him the concept was all inclusive, beginning where formal schooling left off, from the basic education of illiterates to the continuing education of professionals. He went on to note that adult education was not a new thing in the country, although most people did not refer to it by that name. For evidence to support his claim, he offered such historical forms as the Lyceum, Chautuaqua, and community forums.

Although Keppel was impressed by the extent of adult education in the country, he was particularly critical of the general lack of concern given it by the academic community. He chided the academy for failing to pay serious attention to adults, commenting that when it did, it did so for economic profit along narrow vocational lines. To Keppel, the best education was a general education that aimed at developing the "whole person". He was disdainful of overspecialization and critical of vocational education arguing that the country needed more "... educational opportunities which prepare one for living rather than for gaining a livelihood" (P. 20). Commenting on the kind of education he envisioned, Keppel wrote:

> What nationally we lack most, as I see it, is the habit - and in most communities the opportunity as well - of consecutive study in some subject for its own sake - history, literature, science, the fine arts, what you will - not to fill the pay envelope, directly or indirectly, but to develop in the student what experience has proved to be one of the most durable satisfactions of human life. The study must be *consecutive* , for the scattered lectures upon this and upon that, on which we have been relying since the days of the old lyceum, stimulating as they may be for the moment, leave no permanent impression. They don't really educate. (p.22)

Keppel went on to argue that the over emphasis on vocational education in the United States was not inevitable. He looked to England and Denmark as examples of two countries which could teach America much about non-vocational education through their efforts in workers' education and folk high schools.

Keppel was equally concerned about the need for new instructional methodologies. Although not

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calling it by name, he advocated a teaching process similar to andragogy. He argued that adults should not be taught the same way as children or adolescents noting such factors as life experience, multiple responsibilities and high motivation as elements to be integrated into the classroom. Liberal college teachers with a passion for their subject and an appreciation that they could learn as much from their students as the students could from them, were the best teachers according to Keppel. He argued persuasively that the discussion method offered the greatest potential for opening up the mind.

Looking to the future, Keppel was cautious but optimisitic. He believed that the training of adults was not a minor but a major educational activity and as such argued for a more logical relationship between adult education and formal education. He felt confident that in order to bring about the needed changes in society would require organized leadership, financial support for research and experimentation, and a professional association willing to provide technical assistance to the nation. On all counts, Keppel played a key role in assuring attention to these maters through the generous assistance of the Carnegie Corporation. Although his dream may still be wanting by today's standards, Keppel's vision, is as current today as it was when he first offered it some sixty years ago.

Lindeman, Eduard C. The Meaning of Adult Education. New York: New Republic, Inc., 1926.

Eduard Lindeman's book, The Meaning of Adult Education is perhaps the most widely known work of the early adult education movement in the United States. It represents a landmark in critical thought and reflection about life and the meaning of education. In Lindeman's case, there is no difference between life and education; even his definition of education echoes this opinion where "education is life and life is education". Several lines of influence converge in understanding Lindeman's interpretation. He had successfully distinguished himself as a leading authority on community development with the publication of his second book, The Community: An Introduction to the Study of Community and Leadership and Organization in 1921. One year earlier, he dipped into the family savings and returned to Denmark as a way of settling ancestral roots. While there, Lindeman observed first hand the kind of education that he had longed for as a student returning to the classroom at the age of twenty-one. He saw in the Denmark a system of folk high schools and peoples' colleges where education, art, science and life were inclusive rather than exclusive. He too observed the potency of education as an instrument for social change and cultural reform.

Like Keppel, Lindeman was critical of the idea that education should be the sole province of youth. He argued that education was not synonymous with schooling and that it should be lifelong. He called for a "new kind of education with its initial assumption affirming that education is life – not a mere preparation for an unknown kind of furture living" (p. 6). Thus, he defined adult education as coterminous with life, revolving around non-vocational ideals, its curriculum based upon learner needs and interests, and the learner's experience the resource of highest value. Adult education, according to Lindeman, constituted the modern quest for life's meaning and that meaning could only be discovered "in the things for which people strive, the goals which they set for themselves, their wants, needs, desires and wishes" (p. 13). Lindeman went further however, in his definition. He reasoned that those who wanted to improve themelves would also want to change the social order so that their aspirations could be properly expressed. Thus, for Lindeman, adult education was inexorably related to not only individual development but social improvement as well.

At the same time Lindeman was arguing for a new kind of education, he was advocating for an expanded view of intelligence. He criticized the educational establishment for its reductionistic tendencies, quantitative paradigms, and over reliance on standardization where formal educational discipline was the accepted criterion for ability to learn. For him, intelligence is rooted in situations and involves conscious experimentation. Education, he argued, is the process and experience is the means for achieving evolutionary intelligence. The end is life transfused with meaning. Thus, he saw adult education as "... an attempt to discover a new method and create a new incentive for learning; its implications are qualitative, not quantitative" (p. 28). Adult education, Lindeman believed, should emphasize method, not content, for adults need assistance in understanding reality. The method he advocated for undertanding this reality was the small group discussion, with the teacher serving as facilitator of discussion.

Perhaps Lindeman's greatest contribution to the early adult education movement was his recognition that intellectual efforts become meaningful only when seen in social context. He argued that despite the tradition of "rugged individualism" in America, the reality of modern life necessitated what he called social collectivism. By this he meant:

> Collectivism is the road to power, the predominant reality of modern life. To exercise that power without integration with the intellectual process is to court suicide. Collectivism in function with a corresponding individualism in thought produces a divided social structure, an uncontrollable social organization and a mystifying social process. (p.153)

Education, Lindeman reasoned, could supply directive energy for collective enterprises by: (a) revealing the nature of the social process; (b) transforming the battle of interests from warfare into creative conflict; and (c) developing a method for social functions which will make the collective life an educational experience. He saw adult education, distinct from orthodox education, as the instrumentality for advancing learning insofar as the collective agencies would allow the free play of intellectual diversity to flourish. Once this stopped, he argued, they abandoned the right to claim allegiance from intelligent persons. This theme of the social purpose of adult education, although just beginning to take shape in the Meaning of Adult Education, would become even more central to Lindeman's philosophical thought over the remaining years of his life.

Hart, Joseph K. Adult Education. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1927.

Joseph Hart's book, Adult Education appeared one year after Lindeman's as part of the Crowell Social Science Series. It is a provocative account of what adult education could be in the United States. In terms of professional expertise, Hart was ably qualified to write on matters pertaining to education having completed a doctorate in education in 1910. For the next ten years, he spent time as a teacher educator in both a university and college setting. Hart was particularly interested in the relationship between the community and education. He believed that the community was the true educational institution and the whole process of education went on in the social world. Unable to get his teaching materials out of books, he had his student teachers study the community as an educational force. Later, Hart wrote several works dealing with the history of education, community organization, and the educational resources of the community. In the early 1920's, he became more disenchanted with formal education and a vocal advocate of the emerging adult education movement in America. He left higher education during this time to become education editor of The Survey, a mouthpiece of progressive education and reformist ideas. In the spring of 1925, he visited England and Denmark where he found, "fulfillment of my own educational thinking of some sixteen years" (Hart, 1926, p. xvii).

Hart's central thesis is rooted in his analysis of the trends propelling society forward. He recognized that the industrial revolution had brought significant changes to the Western world by altering the conceptions of education, community, politics, employment, religion, and leisure. He further noted that while the industrial revolution had resulted in an enormous increase in the production of material goods, it had not caused "... a corresponding increase in intelligence, morality, participation, beauty, or spiritual realization" (Hart, 1927, pp. 17-18). What still prevailed, Hart argued, was the "village mind" which he described as a provincial and short-sighted view of life and the world. From Hart's perspective, politics, morality, industry, religion, education and amusements were all in bondage to the "village mind". This bondage, Hart believed, had prevented the dream of democracy as envisioned by the founding fathers from being realized. Hart looked to adult education as the instrument in an industrial world for finding out what life must be. He believed that the education of adults should take precedent over the education of youth since:

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> Adults must learn how to live the new order before they can teach it; or, at least, they must be living at it, before they try to teach it. Out of the practices of living must come the understanding that can translate this kind of living into the education of children. This task of educating ourselves to live and to practice the thing we talk about and believe that we practice is the task of education, still: a task we have not yet fully envisaged, and almost not at all as yet undertaken. (pp. 53-54)

Hart, like Lindeman, was critical of the public education system, believing it existed for the preservation of the status quo. To him, it crushed creativity, negated curiosity, and rewarded mediocrity. Hart argued that education was different than schooling and that the community was the natural place for eduction to occur. He believed that for society to overcome its provincial folkways, it must become open and responsive to new ideas. "We are educated by all that touches us," he noted, "we are molded by all that influences us, in anyway" (p. 187). In adult education, Hart saw the means through which society could be reconstructed and new ideas brought into the lives of the public.

Although Hart's book is largely devoted to an analysis and condemnation of the public education system, toward the end he offered a blueprint for action. He argued that adult education must work for the release and development of spiritual powers in the individual and community. These powers included a feeling for the group; a longing for action; a sense of justice and fair play; a desire for beauty, romance, adventure, and freedom; integrity of the human spirit; and a longing for knowledge as a means of understanding and illuminating of the meanings of life. He asserted that adult education must develop new instrumentalities, and a community life as a whole so that these spiritual powers could be released. The instrumentalities he suggested were community educational centers modeled after the Danish People's College.

Fisher, Dorothy Canfield. Why Stop Learning? New York: Harcourt, Brace, & Co., 1927.

Dorothy Canfield Fisher's, Why Stop Learning? differs in many ways from the works of Keppel, Lindeman, and Hart. It was written at the invitation of Frederick Keppel, President of the Carnegie Corporation who wanted a well-known author to bring to the attention of the American public the status of adult education in the country. He purposely chose Fisher who was already an accomplished novelist, champion of the Montessori method of education, and co-founder of the Book-of-the-Month Club. Keppel wanted Fisher to write a book, based on material gathered by researchers for the Corporation, which would be intelligible and interesting to the thoughtful part of the general public. Fisher agreed and prior to the publication of the book, it first appeared as a series of articles in McCall's Magazine.

Although the book is wordy, repetitious, and written more as a descriptive piece than a philosophical treatise, the thinking is clear. Early on, Fisher provided an answer to the question "why adult education?". In reaction to World War I, she noted there was a common concern to maintain democracy and to prevent future wars. Education was perceived as the means toward that end. Prior to the Great War, education was primarily a youth oriented occupation. However, in the war-wise aftermath, insightful educational and political leaders began to realize the importance of adult education as a tool for social understanding. The country may be literate but it was not educated, Fisher argued. Adulthood was seen as the time where education could be mixed and seasoned with life experience; elements that no school could give and no young person could have. The alternative, Fisher advocated, was that learning must continue throughout life, and adult education a key ingredient in that quest.

The balance of the book is devoted to an explication of participation opportunities in adult education. Fisher critically reviewed such adult education forms as correspondence schools, women's clubs, university extension, libraries, and museums, weighing the relative merits and educational worth of each. She also examined international adult education, noting that the United States could learn much from the Danish folk high schools and English village colleges.

The final chapter of the book entitled, "Some Last Guesses", offers a penetrating glimpse into the kind of future Fisher envisioned for the adult education movement. She prophesized how adult education would eventually impact on the entire educational system. By expanding learning throughout the lifespan, educators would be freed from attempting to provide a lifetime of knowledge to the young, thereby turning to their real task; "the awakening, encouraging and judicious feeding of intellectual curiosity and activity" (p. 288). Fisher was cautious, however, about the dangers the movement might face. In a world of enormous change, where incalculably more people, more things, more activities and millions more new impressions in daily life impacted on people, the response might be for more standardization and formalism as a way of coping. Fisher saw as the ultimate goal of adult education helping people cope with the complexities of modern life. Hence she argued: "... it takes genuine education, not the mere acquisition of more information, to enable people to order their lives intelligently" (p. 291). This she hoped adult education could do.

Johnson, Alvin. Deliver Us From Dogma. New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1934.

Alvin Johnson's, Deliver Us From Dogma, although published in 1934, is actually a collection of notes he wrote for weekly bulletins of the New School for Social Research in New York City between 1928 and 1933. Johnson is best known for his work as director of the New School which he helped found in 1919 with such notables as Charles Beard, John Dewey, James Harvey Robinson, and Thorstein Veblen among others. The son of immigrant parents, Johnson was born and raised in the rural midwest, where he acquired an immense appreciation for learning. He was a strong supporter of the Progressive Movement and believed the masses should be educated, not blindly led. Thus, the education of adults preoccupied his thinking and acting over much of his life.

Although Johnson's book suffers from a lack of cohesiveness due to its "collective nature", the thoughts and ideas he offered about adult education are important. Johnson believed that in order for America to remain an "enlightened country", it needed enlightened citizens. Enlightenment, he argued, did not come through the drudgery of schools and colleges. Rather, it came through continuous intellectual growth of which adult education was an assisting force. Johnson, like so many of the early writers, was critical of public education for perpetrating the myth that education ended with commencement. As he so eloquently noted: "To stop education is rapidly to become uneducated" (p. 17).

Johnson viewed the main purpose of adult education as the continuing education of the educated. He believed that the educated, particularly the college graduate, bore a heavy social responsibility. Nearly everyone, he reasoned, was in a position to influence the social and political action of the uneducated. It was, therefore, of utmost importance that the educated mind remain clear and steady. However, Johnson noted that it was the educated who responded most promptly to the waves of dominant opinion. He cites the torrents of emotion-bearing catchwords so common during the post World War 1 period - pro-German, pacifist, sentimentalist, socialist, red, pinko - as evidence for his argument. These torrents, he maintained, had eroded the minds of the educated, leaving them incapable of objective analysis and action. As a solution to this problem, Johnson advocated systematic reading of the great works of history such as Horace, Virgil, and Pliny the Younger as a way of keeping the mind free from the deterioration that results from momentary crisis.

Johnson was also a pragmatist. Although he was disdainful of vocational education as too narrow and limiting, he tolerated it as a means for young adults to find jobs. However, once secure in work and economy, he saw adult education as the means through which young adults could later cultivate their minds in the affairs of political and social life, in literature and the arts, and "... in the most difficult art of all, the art of living" (p. 22).

Johnson acted on many of his ideas about adult education through his involvement in the development and stewardship of the New School for Social Research. He believed that institutions of higher education were too well entrenched in their rigid customs and set curriculums to be responsive to the lay public. As an alternative, the New School practiced open admissions, gave no examinations, and offered no degrees. Johnson also advocated a lecture program addressed to the "intelligent adult", the involvement of students in determining what should be offered, small group discussion, and the use of film as an instructional tool. In many ways he was a visionary well ahead of his time.

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Conclusions

The student of history is cautioned against making any firm cause and effect generalizations on the basis of selected historical evidence. Nevertheless, it is fair to say that the works of Keppel, Lindeman, Hart, Fisher, and Johnson played a significant role in the emerging adult education movement in the United States. Their works helped establish a new kind of educational praxis for adults. They brought to the attention of the nation the importance of adult education, and helped articulate its past, present, and future. In each case, adult education was seen as a crucial ingredient to the preservation of democracy in a rapidly changing world.

To be sure, there are differences in interpretation. Keppel saw as the main purpose of adult education the continuing development of the "whole person". He advocated the traditions of liberal education and was disdainful of overspecialization and vocational studies which he chided as too narrow. Lindeman and Hart, on the other hand, looked to the community as the ultimate educator. They believed that "schooling" and "education" were different and saw as the central purpose of adult education the cultivation of social intelligence. Dorothy Canfield Fisher looked to adult education as the means for helping people cope with the complexities of modern life. Her concern was the development of future generations which, she argued, would be compromised without responsible adults living their lives intelligently through continuous learning. Alvin Johnson, believed adult education to have another purpose. He saw as its main task the continuing education of the educated whom he argued bore a heavy social responsibility. For him the achievement of tolerance and understanding was the ultimate aim.

Looking at all five works collectively reveals a number of common themes. Firstly, the education of adults was seen as valid and legitimate; learning should continue throughout life. Secondly, an educational philosophy that ignored adult learners was inadequate. Thirdly, changing conditions in society threatened the nation; adults, not children, must be prepared for intelligent living if the nation was to survive. Fourthly, schooling and education were not the same; schooling ended with commencement, whereas education was a give and take proposition involving life experiences.

This paper has been a modest attempt to examine and articulate the generic ideas of adult education - its meaning, purposes, and means for achieving the envisioned purposes - as viewed by some of its chief proponents. Aside from the shortcomings in terms of the limited number of works reviewed, the approach has merit for helping to bring to light the early years of American adult education. The 1920's and 1930's represent the "golden years" for adult education when the movement became national in scope, developed a professional identity, and created a literature base. Perhaps no period in the development of the field since has there been such an outpouring of optimism and idealism tempered by pessimism and realism as there was during that time. The works of Keppel, Lindeman, Hart, Fisher, and Johnson give us clues to our heritage as professional adult educators; clues which hopefully lead to a more informed profession today and tomorrow.

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER: STALKING THE ELUSIVE BOK IN ADULT EDUCATION

AUTHOR: Thomas J. Sork, University of British Columbia

During the past ten years much has been written about the need for a validated body of knowledge (BOK) to guide practice in adult education. One of the more promising means of monitoring the production and synthesis of knowledge is through an analysis of meta-research, defined as the systematic study of the processes and products of inquiry which characterize a discipline or field of study. There has been a substantial body of meta-research published in North America during the past thirty years, with significant additions being made since 1980 when the first comprehensive review was completed.

This study began as an effort to identify, analyze, and evaluate meta-research published during the past five years, but developed into a more complex project when variables which are thought to influence research utilization were incorporated into the design. While drawing conclusions regarding the status of knowledge production in North American adult education, it became clear that developing a body of knowledge, and distributing that knowledge through the normal vehicles of dissemination, did not guarantee either its use by practitioners or its validation through application. At this point the study took on the added purposes of (1) exploring the theoretical relationships between knowledge production and application, and (2) evaluating the degree to which various forms of meta-research contribute to knowledge utilization.

Using Sheldon's Body Types as a metaphor, and employing explicit examples from current meta-research literature, this paper:

(1) Identifies and classifies North American meta-research published since 1979;

(2) Analyzes this literature in relation to earlier meta-research;

(3) Evaluates the developing body of knowledge reflected through meta-research; and

(4) Recommends changes in the nature of meta-research which should increase the chances that findings will be used by practitioners and validated through application.

A bibliography of North American meta-research published through 1984, too lengthy to include in the *Proceedings*, will be distributed at the paper session.

STALKING THE ELUSIVE BOK IN ADULT EDUCATION

by

Thomas J. Sork
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Nature of the Beast

Some claim to have seen the beast so clearly that they can describe it in detail; others have caught fleeting glimpses of it and, although they cannot describe it with much fidelity, are thoroughly convinced of its existence; still others have never seen it but are content to accept the word of those who have that it exists; then there are those who reject any evidence of its existence and who can be classified as non-believers. Given such a set of categories one might conclude that the topic under discussion was the existence of bigfoot, sasquatch, or yeti. Although none of these beasts, whether real or imagined, is the focus of this paper, the quarry is just as elusive and shares many of the characteristics attributed to its better known relatives. Of concern here is the elusive BOK (Body of Knowledge) in adult education. Although there is substantial evidence that the BOK exists, is healthy, friendly, and well-nourished, some suspect that the evidence is merely artifact created by those engaged in the hunt because they have such a great desire to convince others of its existence.

From the evidence (or artifact) accumulated to date, it is possible to speculate on the general form which the BOK in adult education takes. Figure 1 consists of three sketches which seem to represent the "body types" most often reported by those engaged in the race to confirm the BOK's characteristics. For ease of reference, the three types are identified using a modified version of the rather rough classifications established for another purpose by Sheldon and Stevens (1942): endo-BOK, meso-BOK, and ecto-BOK. As will be discussed later, these classifications can be useful reference points in the quest to demonstrate the rate of progress being made in the development of a body of knowledge for the field of adult education.

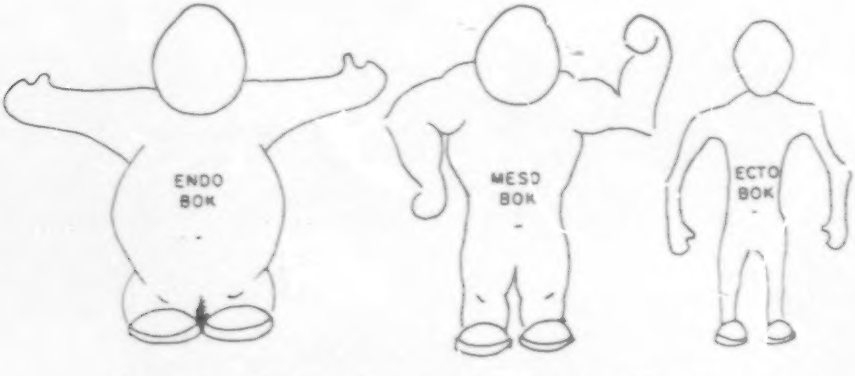

Figure 1. Various forms taken by the BOK in adult education, according to those who claim to have seen it!

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* Copies of a bibliography of meta-research published in North America through 1984 may be obtained by writing to the author at: Adult Education Research Centre, 5760 Toronto Road, Vancouver, British Columbia V6T 1L2 CANADA.

A Strategy for Stalking the Beast

One particularly cunning strategy for stalking the BOK is known as meta-research, defined by Sork (1980) as the "systematic study of the processes and products of inquiry which characterize a discipline or field of study, or, more simply, research on research" (p. 1). Through a review and analysis of adult education meta-research published in North America, Sork developed the following typology which he used to classify publications:

Type I--*Inventories or Registers of Research* are listings of research studies which range in complexity from simple bibliographic entries which include the name of the investigator, title of the study, and where additional information can be obtained, to compilations that also provide a complete abstract of each study and arrange them by topic for more efficient access. A recent example of Type I meta-research is the *Research and Investigation in Adult Education: 1976-1978 Register* (Sork, 1979) sponsored by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education.

Type II--*General Reviews of Research* are analyses of findings spanning the domain of a field of study for the purpose of judging the progress of knowledge production within the field. The best known and most ambitious examples of Type II meta-research in adult education are *An Overview of Adult Education Research* (Brunner, et al, 1959) and *Adult Learning: Research and Practice* (Long, 1983b).

Type III--*Critical or Interpretive Reviews of Research on Specific Topics* are state of the art reviews designed to analyze, synthesize and evaluate studies dealing with a single concept, topic, issue, or question. The usual outcome of Type III meta-research is the identification of generalizations which are consistently supported by a range of studies carried out by different people in different settings. Recent examples of interpretive reviews are one focused on the lecture as a teaching method (Oddi, 1983) and another on mentoring (Merriam, 1983).

Type IV--*Research Agendas or Taxonomies of Needed Research* are listings of research questions or topics which should receive more attention from researchers and, by implication, from those who fund research. Such listings are usually generated from a review of literature or from surveys of researchers, practitioners, and those who support research. Presumably, if progress is being made in developing a body of knowledge, either the list of priority research questions will get shorter, or the questions will change. Research agendas have been prepared in recent years by Easton and Parker (n.d.) and by the Advisory Panel on Research Needs in Lifelong Learning during Adulthood (1978).

Type V--*Focused Critiques of Research Methodology* are systematic analyses and reflective commentaries on the means used to study phenomena of interest to a field. Studies of this type may emphasize the abuses of a methodology and offer suggestions for correct use; they may argue that a particular methodology is not appropriate for exploring certain kinds of questions; or they may suggest that a particular methodology is underutilized in adult education and point out research problems for which a specific methodology is appropriate. Recent examples include a discussion of documentary sources in adult education research (Merriam & Jones, 1983) and of the written life history as a research tool (Warren, 1982).

Type VI--Frameworks or Paradigms for Understanding and Improving Research are studies which are intended to help researchers better understand the nature of the research enterprise, and through such understanding to improve the processes and products of inquiry. Type VI meta-research assists the field by exploring the goals, conduct, types, impacts, or problems of research and identifying areas in which improvement is needed. Recent examples of this type include an analysis of research reported at the Adult Education Research Conference (Long, 1983a) and an exploration of the characteristics of abstracts submitted to the Adult Education Research Conference and their relationship to acceptance/rejection decisions (Pipke, 1984).

Each type of meta-research can be used in the hunt for the elusive BOK, but those who stalk the BOK should be wary of dangers that await the unsuspecting. Not only is the BOK a stealthy beast, but it has the remarkable ability to change its form; it may at one time appear to be quite large and powerful, while at another time it may appear small, meek, and undernourished.

Planning for the Hunt

Whether those who stalk the beast observe its robust, well-nourished form or see it as a scrawny, reclusive occupant of the lower rungs of the evolutionary ladder depends, in part, on the stalker's preconceptions of how the BOK should look. If the conception used is that of "scientific knowledge," the hunt would be planned differently than if the conception is that of "ordinary knowledge." This distinction, argued convincingly by Lindblom and Cohen (1979), suggests that ordinary knowledge is essential to the functioning of professionals and constitutes a vastly underestimated proportion of the reservoir of knowledge available to those who work in the field.

> By "ordinary knowledge," we mean knowledge that does not owe its origin, testing, degree of verification, truth status, or currency to distinctive [techniques of social inquiry] but rather to common sense, casual empiricism, or thoughtful speculation and analysis. It is highly fallible, but we shall call it knowledge even if it is false. As in the case of scientific knowledge, whether it is true or false, knowledge is knowledge to anyone who takes it as a basis for some commitment or action. (p. 12)

The degree to which various forms of meta-research are concerned with scientific knowledge as opposed to ordinary knowledge is unclear, possibly because there is no evidence that the distinction is made in adult education. It is quite possible to conclude from a casual analysis of ordinary knowledge that the endo-BOK best represents the state of knowledge in adult education. But those engaged in meta-research would likely argue that their concern is with scientific knowledge only. If the extent of scientific knowledge is reflected by the number of generalizations that have been verified using the tools of science, then, at best, the ecto-BOK represents the state of knowledge. A further complication in the search for this elusive beast is the problem of finding generalizations that have application to decisions that must be made. Sowell (1980) puts the issues clearly:

> Knowledge may be enjoyed as a speculative diversion, but it is needed for decision making. The genesis of ideas and the authentication of knowledge are part of a continuous process which ultimately brings knowledge to bear on decisions--when the system is working ideally. In real life, the process may, of course, fail to bring knowledge to bear, when accurate knowledge is available somewhere in the system. What matters, then, is the knowledge actually used at the decision-making point, not the knowledge in process of

> development or authentication, nor even the knowledge clearly apparant to particular individuals or organizations somewhere in society. (p. 11)

If knowledge is represented by generalizations, then access to generalizations is equivalent to access to knowledge. However, the existence of a generalization, even if it is accessible to the decision maker, is not sufficient to ensure utilization. Boyd and Menlo (1984) discuss the difficulties associated with "translating" research findings into forms suitable for use in solving problems of a practical nature. They propose a model for knowledge utilization in education that involves converting scientific generalizations, first into practice generalizations, then into design generalizations.

> A practice generalization is a statement that reorganizes a specific generalization into a suggestion for persons as practitioners on what they can do to bring about some outcome desired by the practitioner. It suggests means toward ends. . . . A design generalization is a logical extension of the practice generalization that adds further suggestions for action. It operationalizes the practice generalization through the use of past experiences, methods literature, and imaginative creations that logically match the generally suggested action in the practice generalization. (pp. 67-68)

As presented by Boyd and Menlo, this translation process is totally in the domain of the practitioner; they do not discuss any role that the researcher/scholar might play in increasing utilization of findings. However, Kenny and Harnisch (1982), dealing with the same problem of utilization, place responsibility on the shoulders of both researchers and practitioners.

> Regardless of the validity of practitioners' dismissals of research findings as inapplicable to particular practice contexts, the fact is that when practitioners feel this way, research findings that are valid are often not applied. When this occurs, the field suffers. And when researchers engage in inquiry that is not applicable, practitioners are left with more research to read and fewer valid research findings to find. In short, when we consider research in the applied field of adult and continuing education from a practical and pragmatic point of view, we see that work can be done to improve the link between research and practice and that attention needs to be directed to the activities of both researchers and practitioners. (p. 30)

Tips for a Successful Hunt

So what is to be learned from this excursion that may be of benefit to those who decide to pursue the BOK using the tool of meta-research. First, validation of the claim that a body of knowledge exists in adult education depends on the conception of "knowledge" held by the claimant and whether the evidence presented to support the claim is more than an artifact "planted" by those who stalk the BOK. Over the years, inventories of research may have promoted an illusion of progress in knowledge production because of the increasing number of studies reported. But research activity related to some questions of interest to adult educators seems out of proportion to either the importance of the question or to its implications for practice.

Second, it may be misleading to refer to the body of knowledge used by adult educators as singular. Scholars and practitioners alike continue to draw from diverse bodies of knowledge in conceptualizing research studies and in designing solutions to problems of practice. In fact, the metaphor of a "body" may be totally misleading, placing the state of knowledge production at a much higher evolutionary level than is warranted by its state of development. It may be more accurate to characterize the sources of knowledge used by adult educators as a sort of primordial ooze consisting of myriad elements but which has not yet congealed to the point were it has any discernable shape or substance.

Third, those who prepare interpretive reviews of research should consider the benefits of taking the practitioner's perspective. That is, including in the review information on the settings in which the findings were generated and some examples of situations in which any generalizations which emerge might be applied. The diversity of settings in which adult education occurs makes this recommendation a difficult challenge, but if the apparent gulf between those who study adult education and those who practice it is to be reduced, it may require concessions--or maybe more collaborative behaviors--from both groups.

Fourth, those who compile research agendas should consider grounding the needs they identify in the applied world that most adult educators inhabit. There is little evidence to support the conclusion that Type IV meta-research has had any impact on the direction or quantity of research activity in adult education. This may be due, in part, to the lack of connection between the research needs identified and the day-to-day decisions that must be made by practitioners. It would be very interesting to compare research needs identified by researchers/scholars with those identified by practitioners. Collaborative development of research agendas may contribute to reducing the apparent gulf between those who study adult education phenomena and those who practice.

Fifth, those who discuss methodological issues should consider including assessments of the method's strengths and weaknesses in regard to the utilization of research. Some methods of inquiry may produce results that are more likely to be adopted by practitioners than other methods. In the past five years especially, there has been a pronounced increase in the amount of Type V meta-research in adult education. Traditional means of scientific inquiry, developed and refined in the natural sciences, may have substantial weaknesses when used in the social sciences and in applied fields like education. The very characteristics that make a method "scientific" may contribute to a reduced potential for utilization.

Finally, some caution should be exercised by all who claim to have seen the elusive BOK. Although evidence continues to mount in support of the BOK's existence, and prominent academics have publically proclaimed that they have seen its form, many remain unconvinced. There are certainly benefits which accrue to those who can demonstrate that they are contributing to an established body of knowledge, benefits held in high esteem by those who work in institutions where the very image of the BOK is worshipped. But simply claiming the BOK exists is not sufficient. There are many non-belivers and skeptics who will neither participate in the hunt nor attend to the claims of those who do.

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER EDUCATING INCARCERATED ADULTS

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Among factors speculated to be responsible for failure of correctional education one mentioned consistently in literature and by the prison staff is lack of inmate motivation to learn. This may be due, in part, to correctional education not being in synchroneity with the inmates' special personality characteristics and needs. A study was conducted, therefore, to 1. identify personality characteristics and needs of incarcerated adults and 2. suggest correctional educational principles and guidelines suitable for this special population.

A random sample of 2,000 inmates was drawn from the population of 3,009 in Arizona State Prison, Florence. Their psychological reports were used to obtain data on intelligence, achievement in reading, writing and arithmetic and years of schooling. Of these 513 randomly selected reports were examined to analyze scores on personality and clinical factors. Another random sample of 100 inmates receiving individual psychological treatment and evaluation from the author was used to obtain data on additional personality factors. A separate random sample of 124 inmates was drawn to collect data on their vocation.

Results indicate that while the inmates are intellectually normal and capable of normal academic achievement and high level vocations they are academically and vocationally poor achievers. They, in general, are found to have acute psychological problems which render them incapable of dealing with the demands of day to day living. The prominent problem personality characteristics are reality confusion, social inadequacy, low motivation, low self-concept, substance abuse, anger/hostility, depression, denial, self harm/suicide, suspicion/paranoia, impulsiveness, inadequate psychosexual development, and aggression. When all the data are considered together the emerging picture is that of a group of people who are deficient not intellectually but behaviorally and are, in essence, functionally retarded.

A correctional education program is suggested which incorporates the following elements: 1. Functional adequacy goal helping inmates improve in the areas of identified deficiencies. 2. Motivation to learn through increased expectation of success and anticipation of personal benefits and rewards. 3. Diagnostic-prescriptive approach emphasizing individualization, and competency based education and program revision. 4. Psychotherapy to change inmates' negative propensities. 5. Utilization of principles of adult learning which are, a. individualization, b. involvement of totality of being, c. use of current experience, d. motivation through achievement of individual needs and wants, e. teaching personally useful things, f. Self-directed learning, g. teaching through guidance rather than dictation, h. participation in educational process, i. process orientation rather than content orientation, j. problem solving approach, k. performance contracting, and l. use of reinforcement.

EDUCATING INCARCERATED ADULTS

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INTRODUCTION

Correctional education, although shown effective in reducing recidivism (Wolford, 1980; Blackburn, 1981; Chase, 1983; Thorpe, et al, 1984), increasing academic achievement (Platt, et al, 1977; Pennington, 1979; Roundtree, et al, 1982; Mayer & Hoffman, 1982; Seashore & Haberfeld, 1976), improving self-concept (Platt, et al, 1977; Roundtree, et al, 1982), positively influencing social behavior and adjustment (Platt, et al, 1977; Wolford, 1980; Chase 1983) decreasing inmate intake of drugs and alcohol (Seashore & Haberfeld, 1976), improving prisoner's occupational aspirations, occupational level and future employment prospects (Seashore & Haberfeld, 1976; Braithwaite, 1980) is looked at with scepticism concerning its rehabilitation potential by American public, prison staff (Reagen & Stoughton, 1976), prison administrators (Morse, 1976), and inmates (Campbell, 1978, p 123). The reason behind this widespread scepticism may be the perceived failure of our correctional education to help rehabilitate prisoners, as indicated by continuous increase in prison population, incidence of crime, and recidivism rates. Among factors speculated to be responsible for failure of correctional education, one mentioned consistently in literature and by the prison staff is lack of inmate motivation to learn (Porter & Porter, 1984). This lack of motivation may be due, in part, to the correctional education not being in synchroneity with the adult inmates' special personality characteristics and needs. Adult inmates constitute a special group, because first, they are adults not children and second, they are inmates in prison, not free people in the society. Yet, educational programs in prisons, both in content and technique, in general, appear to correspond to those developed for children and adults in the free society. It follows, therefore, that a successful correctional educational program will have to start with an understanding of adult inmates' special personality characteristics and needs dictating special educational program and curriculum, then utilizing teaching techniques suited to adult learners. Realizing this need, the present project was undertaken. Specifically, its purposes were: 1. To identify personality characteristics and needs of incarcerated adults and 2. To suggest correctional educational principles and guidelines suitable for this special population.

METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted in Arizona State Prison, Florence, during 1984. A random sample of 2,000 inmates (66.4% of population of 3009) representing all the seven units in the complex was drawn. The computer prepared psychological reports of all the inmates were obtained. These reports were based on inmates' scores on the following tests: Culture Fair Test of Intelligence, Sixteen Personality Factors, Clinical Analysis Questionnaire, Wide Range Achievement Test,

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Lower Motivational Analysis Testing and Lower Vocational Interest Measure. The reports also included narrative containing diagnostic impressions and personality composites. Not all test scores were available for all the inmates in the sample, therefore, N for different variables varied.

Only 1,873 reports contained intelligence and academic achievement scores which were used to compute mean IQ and mean reading, writing and arithmetic grade levels. Mean number of years of education completed was computed from such data available from 985 reports. Out of the original sample, 513 reports were randomly selected for analysis of scores on personality and clinical factors. A special section of the report contained diagnostic summaries based on scores on personality and clinical tests. These diagnostic summaries were used to first identify inmates with psychopathology. There were 356 such inmates whose diagnostic summaries were further studied to identify their specific psychiatric symptoms. A total of 11 psychiatric symptoms were selected as suggested by the test data and percentage of inmates belonging to each category was computed. In addition, to obtain a more comprehensive personality profile of inmates, the life history method was used. For this purpose, the present author's files on inmates receiving individual psychological treatment and evaluation were utilized. Except for mentally ill inmates who were not considered, all other inmates in the prison had equal chance of being referred to the present author for psychological services. They, therefore, may be treated as representative of prison population. A random sample of 100 inmates was drawn. The information in their files was derived from a variety of sources; clinical interview; personality tests such as the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, Thematic Apperception Test, Suicide Probability Scale, Free Association Test; Letters written and received by inmates; inmate's essays on selected topics; personal life account written by inmates; photographs of inmate family and friends; inmate poems and stories; and statements made under hypnosis. Different techniques were used with different inmates as appropriate except clinical interview which was used with every inmate. All life histories were content analyzed which yielded 13 personality characteristics found in at least 10% or more inmates. Percentage of inmates within each of the 13 identified personality characteristics were computed. A separate sample of 124 inmates was randomly drawn from the prison population to collect data on their vocation. The listed vocations were categorized as unskilled labor, skilled labor and professional-specialist. Percentage of inmates within these categories was computed. All these data were considered together to develop a personality profile of incarcerated adults.

RESULTS

The data revealed adult inmates to be of normal intelligence (Mean IQ = 105.9) with average grade level achievement of only 8.5 in reading and 5.9 in both writing and arithmetic and with average number of years of schooling received tobe 10.8. These figures suggest that while the inmates are intellectually normal and capable of normal academic achievement, they are academically poor achievers. Their academic achievement is even lower than the number of years of schooling which itself is less than high school.

Vocationally, 65.3% inmates are found to engage in unskilled labor, 22.6% in skilled labor and only 12.1% in professional and specialist occupations. Again, while intellectually they are capable of higher level vocations, the majority of them engage in unskilled labor.

An analysis of clinical scores indicated that a majority of inmates (69.4%) have one or more psychopathologies. When these inmates were grouped into seven major diagnostic categories, the following pattern emerged; Acute Problems/Symptoms (42.7%), Schizophrenic/Psychotic (16.9%), Severely Disturbed (16.6%), Neurotic Debility (11.5%), Socially Irresponsible (7.9%), Disturbed Adolescent, (3.4%), Suicidal (1.0%). These data suggest that inmates, in general, have acute psychological problems and only a few of them are mentally ill (psychotic, neurotic, suicidal).

Analysis of proportion of inmates exhibiting specific psychopathological symptoms revealed the following: Thought Disorder (35.4%), Paranoid Ideation (34%), Restlessness (29.5%), Frustration (25.6%), Somatic Symptoms (24.7%), Depression (24.7%), Perceptual Disorders (21.9%), Anxiety (21.1%), Agitation (14.9%), Obsession-Compulsion (3.4%), Delusion (3.1%). These data indicate large individual differences in inmates' psychopathological symptoms. The kind of psychopathalogies found among inmates seem to indicate that while they are not so severe as to require hospitalization, they are such which will render individuals incapable of dealing effectively with their environment and handling demands of day to day living in a responsible manner.

Personality characateristics as revealed by life history data were: Reality Confusion (82%), Social Inadequacy (61%), Low Motivation (56%), Low Self-Concept (51%), Substance Abuse (43), Anger/Hostility (39%), Depression (30%), Denial (24%), Self Harm/Suicide (16%), Suspicion/Paranoia (15%), Impulsiveness (15%), Inadequate Psychosexual Development (10%), Aggression (10%). All identified personality characteristics are negative, the positive characteristic showing in so few inmates that they are not listed.

When all these data are considered together, the emerging picture is that of a group of people who are deficient not intellectually but behaviorally and are, in essence, functionally retarded. The behavioral deficiencies seem to be a function of a complex interaction of a variety of psychiatric disorders and negative personality characteristics. Because of the exceptional nature of incarcerated adults, special education techniques specially modified for them are required.

DISCUSSION

The results dictate a correctional education program which incorporates the following elements:

1. Functional Adequacy Goals: The incarcerated adults in order to be able to deal with the demands of life, need to improve themselves in specific areas of functional deficiencies, which are identified in the present research to be academic, vocational, social and personal (low self-concept, inadequate psychosexual development, substance abuse, anger/hostility, aggression and impulsiveness). The existing educational programs are limited to academic education for GED and some vocational skills such as carpentry, masonry, small engine repair, printing, etc. All other identified areas of deficiency are not even addressed.

2. Motivation: The inmates should be motivated not forced to learn. Theories of adult motivation reviewed by Cross (1981) suggest that adult inmates would be motivated to learn if negative environmental forces in the prisons are controlled, expectation of personal success and positive consequences of learning

are installed in the inmates, a congruence instead of adversary role relations between the inmate and the prison is established, and the inmates are placed in a situation where they can consciously anticipate rewards. Considering the way the prisons are run, it may not be possible to remove negative valences from the inmates' environment and create congruence between them and the institution, but it should be possible to develop and implement an education program which increases expectation of success and anticipation of personal benefits and rewards leading to motivation to participate in learning.

3. Diagnostic-Prescriptive Approach Emphasizing Individualization and Competency Based Eduction. This approach has been in use in special education for a number of years and has been described in detail in several publications (e.g. Ferrald and Schamber, 1973; Stellern, et al, 1982). It's use in correctional education, however, is very limited. It addresses individual motivations, strengths and weaknesses of adult inmates (Mager, 1975; MacCormick, 1931; Shelton, 1980) through "personalized instruction" (Kasworm, 1980) and utilizes Individual Educational Plan (IEP). According to the process described by Blake (1981) and Krisak and Ross (1981) it is composed of the following steps: a. Global diagnosis through objective testing to identify broad areas of weaknesses of the individual. b. Specific diagnosis through objective testing to pinpoint the individual's unique strengths and weaknesses within the identified global areas. c. Prescription for an education program focusing on the use of identified strengths to correct identified areas of weaknesses through specification of educational goals and objectives, teaching methods, and tools. d. Personalized system of teaching/therapy implementing the prescription. e. Evaluation through objective testing to determine progress made, if any, by the individuals toward their educational goals and objectives. f. Revision of prescription based on evaluation results.

4. Psychotherapy: The identified psychiatric symptoms and problem personality characteristics, if not psychologically treated, are likely to prevent incarcerated adults from participating in their educational programs. An individual who lacks reality orientation and is paranoid is likely to see the teacher as a foe rather than a friend, or one who has low self-concept is not likely to see himself succeeding in anything, or one who is impulsive is not likely to put years of effort in education and wait for future gains, or one who is severely inadequate and psychosexually immature is not likely to be able to function in social situations or one who is always angry and hostile or depressed is not likely to be emotionally stable enough to preceive and respond to educational stimuli let alone respond to them appropriately or one who is an alcoholic and drug addict is more likely to use all his resources in obtaining substances rather than in education. Before incarcerated adults can be educated, they have to be treated to "change their negative propensities" (Price and Price, 1980).

5. Principles of Adult Learning: A review of adult education literature revealed a number of principles of adult learning which appear appropriate for teaching incarcerated adults.

A. Individualization of educational goals and techniques and "provision for differences in style, time, place and pace of learning", must be made because individual differences increase with age (Lindeman, 1926) and adults are a heterogenous group (Rauch, 1981). B. Involvement of totality of being (Davies, 1981) by adults requires that education must not be fragmented into isolated subjects but should be integrated with all life experiences.

C. Learning should emphasize current experience of the learner (Davies, 1981) because adults are "now oriented (Rauch, 1981). However, it should utilize the learners experiences (Lindeman, 1926) accumulated over years (Knowles, 1979). D. Adult motivation for learning should be directly tied to their individual needs and wants (Lindeman, 1926) since adults learn only those things which they perceive as necessary for "maintenance of or enhancement of the structure of self" (Rogers, 1951). E. The things which are useful in their day to day living or are life centered (Lindeman, 1926) have the highest priority in adult learning. Of all the life centered things, the ones that have positive impact on inmates economic circumstances (Braithwaite, 1980) are most important. F. Adults are self-directed (Lindeman, 1926) since maturation is a progression from total dependency to self-directedness (knowles, 1975, 1979). The inmates can be self-directed learners if they are taught how to learn which would set a "self-sustaining process" (Foley-Jones and Broadhurst, 1977) in motion. G. Education should be given thorough guidance (Wallack, et al, 1939) not through authority (Lindeman, 1926) because as Rogers (1951) pointed out the education of another person can only be facilitated. H. Adults learn best when they are active participants in educational process in contrast to being passive recipients of information (Rauch, 1981). I. Learning by adults is process-oriented not content-oriented (Knowles, 1979). In traditional content-oriented education, the teacher decides beforehand what knowledge or skills need to be given to the student and then proceeds to give them. In process-oriented education, the teacher uses diagnostic-prescriptive approach and the content emerges out of that process. J. Problem centered orientation is basic to adult learning (Knowles 1979). Readymade solutions to problems used blindly is not an adult characteristic. Adults use logic and available facts to arrive at new solutions to the problems which are accepted or discarded after testing. K. Performance contractting has been found to be a very effective learning tool (Pennington, 1979). It, in contrast to performing under someone else's orders, requires the learner to contract with the teacher or with himself to meet certain specific performance goals in order to receive certain rewards (Knowles, 1979). L. Performance can be increased and strengthened through proper reinforcement. This is true for adults as well as for all living beings. Learning is facilitated by positive results and knowledge of results (Ayers, 1977) and must be made integral part of any adult education.

In the end, it needs to be stressed that in order for correctional education to have impact, it must be available to all adult inmates not just a few as is the case today.

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER ADULT LEARNING IN A RESOURCE EXCHANGE NETWORK: A CASE STUDY OF THE WESTCHESTER RESOURCE EXCHANGE NETWORK

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Learning is a lifelong process and the majority of adult learning occurs outside the formal, traditionally conceived boundaries of institutions. However, the majority of the research in the field of adult education focuses on the latter--not the former type. The premise of this study is that resource exchange networks provide a viable avenue for continuing non-formal adult learning in community settings.

A case study was conducted of the Westchester Resource Network. For the purposes of the study this network is defined as a voluntary, loosely connected group of professionals from diverse backgrounds who come together to solve community problems through the process of resource identification and exchange. Utilizing a triangulated methodology, data were gathered from interviews, naturalistic participant observation and historical research.

The nature and type of learning identified has unique characteristics. First, it is of a highly individualized nature and is interpreted in a variety of ways by subjects. Secondly, the learning is of an informal and self-directed nature within an environment conducive to exploration and experimentation. Noteworthy is the high level of abstractness of the learning which was reported. Finally, the skills and knowledge derived from the learning are reported to be transferable to other professional and personal situations.

Considerably more research is required in the area of adult learning in environments like these to enable better planned implementation of new networks. Other areas of research include: study of the unique role of the coordinator; exploration of the settings and organizational structures required to support such activities; and field testing and refinement of training for those desiring to organize or coordinate networks.

Adult Learning in a Resource Exchange Network: A Case Study of the Westchester Resource Exchange Network

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Introduction

Two important movements within adult education, lifelong learning and networking, gained significant momentum during the late 70's and are now moving to a position of national interest.

Several coalescing factors have stimulated the increased interest in lifelong learning, which is defined as the acquisition and assimilation of new skills and knowledge during one's entire lifetime. The first is the demographic shift in our society, evidenced by the growing number of people who live to 65 years of age or older. Secondly, the rapid introduction of modern technology is staggering and requires individuals to re-engage in learning in order to stay current with new ideas.

The other movement which has gained momentum is networking. It is impossible to state precisely the number of networks in existence at the present time. Lipnack and Stamps (1982) include a listing of the names of over 1500 groups which indicated, in response to a questionnaire, that they identified with the idea of networking, "people connecting with people" (p. 1). The term "network" has been grossly misused and overused, but the underlying premise of networks deserves attention. By providing individuals access to other people and to sources of information, networks open up avenues and resources for problem solving and provide human contacts for combatting isolation.

Lifelong learning and network participation intersect in many ways. One of the most notable is in community life, where networks are springing up in response to individual and group needs for finding solutions to the multiple, diverse and pressing challenges which confront our world.

Statement of the Problem

A high percentage of adult learning takes place beyond the classroom. Adults search constantly for ways to enhance their personal lives, to become capable, contributing members of society and to pool their resources to effect change for themselves and the community as a whole.

One mechanism which facilitates personal and community learning is the phenomenon known as networks, where people with similar interests, problems or concerns come together for purposes of mutual support (physical and psychological), advice, teaching and learning (Simon & Belz, 1980, p. 153). Because many formal measures fail, informal networks are often the "chief means by which agencies and individuals can be coordinated in working out

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new problems which cut across their boundaries" (Schon, 1971, p. 171).

This study was based on the assumption that resource networks provide a viable mechanism for promoting learning. However, the intent was a case study of one network, not a comprehensive study of all networks. This definitional limit was specified for two reasons. First, because of the popularization and somewhat indiscriminate use of the word "network," the number of possible networks is virtually unlimited. To adequately derive a sample and undertake an empirical study of the total universe was outside the scope of this project.

Secondly, the purpose of this research was to study how networks can be used as vehicles for public (group) as well as individual learning. It appeared that the Westchester Resource Network, selected for this study, had the potential for both, while the majority of the other networks focus primarily or exclusively on the individual.

On the macro level, there were two major foci of this research project. The first was to illuminate and understand the contextual setting, personality composition and conceptual base of the Westchester Resource Network. The second was to explore the nature and extent of adult learning which occurs within and as a result of participation in this network.

Methodology

Because networks and learning are dynamic, changing and active processes, the research design had to permit the collection of idiographic data, that is, data which are rich in their descriptions of people, contextual settings, places and ideas. Research of the nature described above must encompass the environmental, social, historical and behavioral contexts within which such phenomena occur. Because of the inherent complexities of these contexts, this study could not begin with a well-defined or tightly knit theoretical construct.

The methodology developed for this study was a case study emanating from naturalistic techniques of inquiry. Pilsworth and Ruddock (1975) have urged the researcher in the area of adult education to "'triangulate' and use more than one method" (p. 33). The primary data source was a case study integrating elements of a modified grounded theory approach with naturalistic inquiry--methods of investigation which appeared to offer the greatest range of avenues for the study, analysis and synthesis of data.

This process included progressive formulation, refinement of results or redevelopment of propositions. Through the process of data gathering and refined theory building, certain diverse themes became elaborated, validated and, finally, integrated. 42 subjects were included in the case study.

Participant observation was the second research method employed wherein the researcher entered into Network activities while at the same time analyzing Network functions against theory. Extensive records were kept of Network activities and notes of phone conversations with Network coordinators. A basic operating principle of the Network is reciprocity and the work for this study is a classic example. This researcher participated and contributed to Network activities, including projects and the design of training. In return, she was given the opportunity to use the Network as the basis for study.

The third facet of the methodological approach was the use of historical research. History is not merely a list of chronological events, but rather a more factual, integrated account of relationships between persons, events, times and places. History is utilized not only to understand the past, but also to understand the present in the light of past events and developments. In this research, the utilization of an historical perspective was made to enrich and extend understanding of the Network. It also served to delimit the study, to clarify hypotheses and generalizations and to sharpen the questions and issues raised. The primary sources included firsthand accounts of past events reported by observers or participants. Secondary sources were those accounts of events that were not witnessed by the reporter.

The Westchester Resource Network

Defined--The Westchester Resource Network is defined as a voluntary, loosely connected group of professionals from diverse backgrounds who come together to solve community problems through the process of resource identification and exchange. These individuals represent pools of competence and interest and bring to the Network personal and organizational needs to be fulfilled as well as resources to be shared.

This Network has many elements which are similar to those of voluntary associations of workers, but there are distinct differences. Network members: participate during the course of their professional work-day; bring professional related issues to be studied; and look at resource identification within this framework. Most important, they are operating within, not outside the structures of their organizations or institutions.

The role of the coordinator is pivotal to the success of the Network and the implications of this fact are important in consideration of the spread of the network concept. Work of the Network is carried out primarily through operational groups. These groups are defined as that constellation of people from various parts of a spectrum of disciplines, professions, social roles and relationships which, at a given time and situation, are pertinent to the requirements of a person, group or task. It is this dispersion of Network activities which, on the one hand, leads to its dynamic and beneficial nature and, on the other, causes definitional ambiguity and fuzziness. The boundaries of the Network are not clear and not all members know each other, nor do they know the range of the activities with which the Network is identified. Less frequently, general Network meetings are held where participants of the operational groups come together to share resources.

Setting--The Network is centered in the county of Westchester, New York, the county immediately adjacent to the north of the city of New York. The county is diverse in the extreme: acres and acres of farms; crowded ghettos; and the very, very poor and the mega rich. There is, within the county, a high quality of leadership found in the social service agencies, schools and community service groups.

Origins of the Network--During the past eleven years, basic Network operations have come from the efforts of a volunteer coordinator and of one full-time paid coordinator. Monies for hiring the coordinator have come from private foundations.

In the formative stages of the Network, interaction between practitioners and theoreticians was perceived as basic to the rationale. Sarason et al. conceptualized the theoretical basis of the Network (1977), and the roster of original membership included participants from: administration and faculty of the Bedford School

District; dean of social studies of the State University of New York at Purchase; Westchester Community College; professionals from the field of human services; and representatives from private, non-profit and government sectors.

Subjects of the Study--The original sample was nominated by four individuals who were considered the founders of the Network. Additionally, two or more of the subjects recommended the inclusion of an individual in the sample, the names were added. In all, 42 individuals were interviewed. Of the sample, 20 subjects were males and 22 were females. Twenty of the subjects were employed in Westchester County. Of the subjects, two had completed high school; four had received their college bachelor's degree; 21 the masters degree; and 15 had earned doctoral degrees. The implications of these educational characteristics became important in the course of the study.

Twelve subjects were working the field of public education; nine were emloyed by institutions of higher education; ten represented social service agencies; five of the subjects were or had been Network coordinators; and six subjects represented a range of educational projects outside the parameters of the traditional public or higher education structures.

Findings

Definitional Ambiguity--Overuse and misuse of the word network leads to ambiguity and conceptual misunderstandings. Although all of the subjects of this research had participated in the Network for more than two years, there was lack of agreement or clarity on a definition of the Network. There was agreement that the Network was a loosely connected system and that it was important to maintain that characteristic in order to break through the hierarchies of institutions. "What occurs in a network is that members treat one another as peers" (Naisbitt, 1982, p. 197). It was concluded that more time and attention should be given to discussion of definitions and theories of the resource network so that participants could more adequately discuss with colleagues and superiors what they were involved in and the goals which they were striving to achieve. The Network is always in the process of "becoming" and changing--therefore discussions should likewise be ongoing.

Motivation for Participation in the Network--The reasons which were given for participation in the Network are both simple and complex. Some subjects had been motivated to participate because it provided a means for thinking about and formulating network theory and philosophy. Others had been invited to participate and the motivation for accepting that invitation included the needs that individuals have which encompass inclusion, belongingness and identification with others.

One of the most common ways in which new people were attracted to the Network was through new projects which represented areas of interest or needs of their organizations. Representative of this type of group were a school-college-community project; professionals advocating increased attention to the needs of the early adolescent; and a collaborative research project involving the Westchester Community Service Council, the Graduate Center of the City University of New York, the Westchester County Youth Bureau and the Network. The life of these operational groups varied from six months to those which, with changing foci, were ongoing.

Patterns of Adult Learning in the Network--The heart of the learning potential of the Network is in the process of resource identification, re-definition and exchange for community problem solving, not in the structure of an organization. Because "providing a mechanism for adult learning" is not one of the expressed purposes of the Network, exploratory conversation about Network activities was often needed before the subjects recognized that much of what was happening could be labeled learning. However, it became evident to this researcher that learning, whether planned or emergent, was occurring and that it was extensive and pervasive. It exemplified the oft-cited words of Rogers and Groombridge (1976)--it was such a familiar and integral part of the Network activities that it was not recognized as learning. The invisible walls of the Network create classrooms for learning, for "free" research and development, for experimentation and for learning and change.

Likened to peer learning, subjects reported that other members of the Network actually facilitated new learning for them. Members, professional or expert in a specific area, were learning from others who came from totally divergent fields. Brookfield's (1980) research supports this finding where independent learners turn to others for guidance and assistance as a critical mode of adult learning.

Three important areas of learning were reported. The first is informational or content-specific learning--the acquisition of new knowledge. The knowledge gained provided participants with a much clearer picture of how their community was operating. Traditional community sources of information, such as libraries, newspapers and social service agencies, frequently miss the mark in making information about the activities available. A result of the acquisition of new knowledge was the beginning of new activities in a collaborative mode.

Subjects also indicated that they had learned new skills in problem solving, conducting needs assessment, scanning and connectional thinking. People learned how to express themselves and how to use others as a resource. In addition to the more tangible types of learning, the subjects also reported a great deal of learning and change in attitude. Frequently identified areas were: the need for and benefit of developing trust; acquiring a sense of mutual support; and the ability to talk about resource needs in the context of exchange.

The benefits derived from the learning which occurred in the course of Network activities covered a broad spectrum. Perhaps one of the most interesting, as well as potentially useful, themes which emerged in this category is what individuals referred to as energy release, the result of internal and external integrations of knowledge, relationships and resources. Subjects reported that there were definite, identifiable results of the learning which accrued to them individually, as well as to the institutions which they represented.

The nature and type of learning identified has unique characteristics. First, it is of a highly individualized nature and is interpreted in a variety of ways by the subjects. Secondly, the learning is of an informal and self-directed nature within an environment conducive to exploration and experimentation. Noteworthy is the high level of abstractness of the learning which was reported. Finally, the skills and knowledge derived from the learning are reported to be transferable to other professional and personal situations.

Conclusions

Not surprisingly, patterns began to emerge in one category and then re-emerged in others. It should be underscored, however, that there are recognized limitations to this study. Far too little research has focused on this non-formal type of learning, and until more is completed, the findings of this study remain incomplete. The setting and conditions of this Network are unique and caution must be exercised against over-generaliztion before further research is undertaken.

Major patterns emerged. First, there is a lack of, but need for, a clear definition of resource exchange networks. Agreement on definitions and intention will strengthen the rationale for participation and will enable institutions to make informed decisions to commit resources to such an endeavor.

Secondly, there is litle doubt that adult learning was occurring. As described, the learning facilitated the work on the job, and therefore could be justified as productive. Network participation was personally and professionally rewarding. The learning is: highly individualized; informal in nature; and by and large self-directed. Noteworthy is the high level of abstract learning which resulted. In the third place, there is a critical need for some type of coordination to insure that the processes which are central to the operation of the Network are carried out.

Considerably more research is required in the area of adult learning in environments like these to enable better planned implementation of new networks. Other areas of research include: study of the unique role of the coordinator; exploration of the settings and organizational structures required to support such activities; and field testing and refinement of training for those desiring to organize and coordinate networks.

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER AN ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COGNITIVE STYLE (FIELD DEPENDENCE-FIELD INDEPENDENCE) AND LEVEL OF LEARNING.

AUTHOR A. Eugene Tootle, Lt Col, USAF (Doctoral Candidate, Auburn Univ.)

This study was designed to investigate the relationship between cognitive style (specifically, field dependence-field independence) and level of learning, as described in Bloom's taxonomy of the cognitive domain. In June - August, 1984, 199 US Air Force officers preparing for Air Force instructional duties (primarily ROTC at colleges and universities throughout America) were administered Witkin's Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT) for classification into one of two criterion groups (Fd-Fi). They were then subjected to 5½ weeks of intensive teacher training in principles and techniques of instruction. All officers had Master's degrees in various subject areas. During the course, they were administered three dependent measures -- a knowledge-level test requiring only memory/recall of previously learned material, a comprehension-level test requiring an understanding of concepts, relationships, and abstractions beyond simple memory, and an application-level test requiring students to apply their knowledge and comprehension in new and different situations. The analytical technique employed was correlational; ANOVA revealed that field independents scored significantly higher on both the comprehension and application-level tests than field dependents (particularly when measured in the extremes), but there was no difference on the knowledge-level test. The results imply that in adult populations, as course content becomes more complex and test items more demanding (requiring a higher level of operative processing) a field independent cognitive style may be favorable for achievement of learning outcomes.

AN ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COGNITIVE STYLE (FIELD DEPENDENCE-FIELD INDEPENDENCE) AND LEVEL OF LEARNING

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I. INTRODUCTION

In the literature on cognitive style (specifically, the field dependent-field independent dimension), there have been many studies relating cognitive style and learning (i.e. MacNeil, 1983; Henninger & Snyder, 1983; Frank & Davis, 1982; Goodenough, 1976; Witkin et al., 1977); however, it does not appear that anyone has examined the relationship between cognitive style (Fd-Fi) and levels of learning, as described in Bloom's Taxonomy of the Cognitive Domain (1956).

The field dependent-field independent (Fd-Fi) dimension of cognitive style was introduced by Herman Witkin in 1954, and has been widely researched (Witkin et al., 1977). Witkin's conception of cognitive style focuses on the unique or characteristic way an individual deals with an intellectual or perceptual learning task; one's information processing habits; unique modes of perceiving, thinking, and remembering (Witkin et al., 1977). In effect, it is an indication of competence at disembedding figure from ground.

The Fd-Fi dimension has been linked to a variety of cognitive and perceptual behaviors; i.e. memory learning (Goodenough, 1976; Davis & Frank, 1979; Frank & Davis, 1982), concept formation (Stasz et al., 1976; Witkin et al., 1977), communications effectiveness (Frank & Davis, 1982; Ohnmacht, 1966), counselor effectiveness (Witkin et al., 1977), and a variety of educational phenonena including social sensitivity, locus of control, subjectivity to conditioning, academic performance, coursework preferences, and preferred learning styles (Witkin et al., 1977). Generally, a field dependent person is believed to be more effective in social situations and in social science subjects; whereas a field independent person tends to perform better in subjects and situations requiring abstract reasoning and a strong analytic ability (Witkin et al., 1977).

Field independent students have been found to perform better in school than field dependents -- particularly in math, science, and theory-based courses requiring higher degrees of abstract reasoning (Renninger & Snyder, 1983; Cohen, 1968, 1969; Cross, 1977; Vaidya & Chansky, 1980; Witkin et al., 1977); however, the evidence is strongest for elementary students -- it is less strong for high school students, and weakest for college populations. Interestingly though, Witkin, Moore, Goodenough et al. (1977) and Witkin, Moore, Oltman et al. (1977) provide evidence that as students grow older and are allowed to select more electives, each cognitive style tends to take, and more often earns higher grades in subjects best suited to their respective cognitive styles. This often results in little or no apparent differences in the academic performance of Fd-Fi students in college.

Bloom's Taxonomy of the Cognitive Domain (1956) is widely used in American educational systems as a classification scheme for defining, stating, writing, and evaluating educational objectives -- therefore, it seems well suited for examining how cognitive style may relate to learning and/or whether a certain style may hinder or enhance certain types (or levels) of learning. The taxonomy

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includes such cognitive behaviors as remembering, reasoning, problem-solving, condept formation, and to a limited extent, creative thinking (Bloom et al., 1956, p15). It is based on the premise that learning occurs in a hierarchical and cumulative continuum, with each level of learning increasingly complex and qualitatively different. The taxonomy rank orders learning from simple to complex in the following order:

KNOWLEDGE - COMPREHENSION - APPLICATION - ANALYSIS - SYNTHESIS - EVALUATION

During three years of teaching a test item construction laboratory using Bloom's taxonomy as a guide, this writer has observed that many students who do well on higher level of learning test items share several characteristics that Witkin attributes to field independents. Much of the cognitive style literature (Fd-Fi) suggests that field independents tend to use a more articulated, problem-solving approach to learning, perceiving critical items as discrete from background, and imposing structure on information which has little or no inherent structure. Field dependents, by comparison, tend to use a global approach to learning, depending largely on memory processes, and accepting the prevailing "field" of information as given, using few if any intervening variables such as analysis, synthesis, categorizing, or information structuring. This global vs articulated approach to learning seems to be a key factor differentiating field dependents and field independents on how they receive and process information.

This study was designed to explore the proposition that cognitive styles can make a difference in the academic performance of college level students -- particularly as relates to level of learning. Intuitively, if one accepts Bloom's premise that cognitive activity (learning) can be differentiated according to level of operative functioning, and that each level can be identified and measured, then field independent students could logically be expected to more readily and perhaps more easily grasp increasingly abstract learning tasks due to the unique characteristics of their learning style. That is the basic premise of this study.

II. METHODOLOGY

Subjects: The subjects for this study were 199 US Air Force officers attending a teacher training course at the Academic Instructor School (AIS) at Maxwell AFB, Alabama. All possessed Master's degrees in various subject areas; most were preparing to teach Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC) academic subjects at colleges and universities throughout America. They represented a cross-section of military society in race and sex and were relatively junior in rank (mostly First Lieutenants and Captains; a few junior Majors). They were fairly homogeneous in age (approximately 25-35) and were assumed to be reasonably homogeneous in intelligence (at least in minimums) since all had taken and passed the Air Force Officer's Qualification Test (AFOQT) prior to commissioning.

Instruments:

a. The Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT), developed by Oltman, Raskin, and Witkin (Witkin, 1971) was administered to categorize the students into Fd and Fi criterion groups. The test consists of 18 complex figures, each having one of eight simple figures embedded within the complex design. During two five-minute test periods, each student is required to locate and trace over as many of the simple figures as possible. A person's relative field independence is determined by the number of simple figures he/she can identify correctly within the complex designs.

b. Achievement Tests - Two multiple-choice tests (one knowledge-level; one comprehension-level) and one short answer/essay test (application-level) were used to measure academic achievement during the course. The tests were developed by the AIS faculty and evaluation experts, and were validated over several administrations prior to this study. The level of learning of each test item was examined by test authorities, and was determined to measure the designated level of learning. Dr Benjamin Bloom and Dr Norman Gronlund's general test item development criteria, designs, and guidelines were followed in developing the multiple-choice test items. The short answer/essay (application) test was a competency test requiring all students to develop various components of a lesson plan following principles taught in the course.

Procedure: Due to the large size of the classes, one-half of the students entered the 5½ week course in early June and the others began in July. Upon entry, each student was administered the GEFT for criterion group classification (Fd-Fi). Although not manipulated, field dependence-field independence served as the independent variable. Students were administered a pretest on the first course day to insure they were reasonably equivalent on subject knowledge prior to course entry. They were then randomly assigned to seminars. The instruction addressed four major areas -- educational foundations, communication skills, lesson planning and instructional methods, and evaluation (test item writing, item analysis, basic statistics, etc.). Several instructional media were used during the course, including large group lectures, seminar discussions, closed circuit TV, practice teaching exercises, small group projects, and extensive outside reading. Each seminar advisor followed a highly-structured lesson guide and was evaluated periodically by an experienced staff member to insure standardization of instruction. Each new subject area was introduced and explained in large group lectures prior to breaking into seminars for small group work.

After the first two weeks of the course, a 28 question multiple-choice Knowledge-level exam (unit survey 1) was administered. (Between the third and fourth weeks, a second unit survey was given which contained both knowledge and comprehension-level test items; however, since the levels were mixed, these test results were not used in this study). During the last week of the course, the 50 question multiple-choice comprehension-level examination was given, followed 2-3 days later by the application-level (short answer/essay) written final exam. An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was later conducted to determine if there were any differences in performance between the field dependent and the field independent groups on the knowledge, comprehension, and application-level exams.

III. RESULTS

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used in three ways to analyze the data derived from this study. First, the top and bottom thirds of the GEFT test scores were used to establish criterion groups. Those students scoring 1-10 were identified as the field dependent group and those scoring 16-18 were categorized as field independents. The 63 middle scores (11-15) were eliminated. Analysis of Variance was then applied (using SPSS) to the Knowledge, Comprehension, and Application-level test scores. There were no differences in the two group's scores on the knowledge-level test, but performances on the comprehension and application-level tests were significant at the 0.01 level, with field independents scoring significantly higher than field dependents. Table 1 summarizes the results:

	FIELD DEPENDENT -	FIELD INDEPENDENT	
N	70	66	
MEANS			
Knowledge	17.10	17.67	($F = 0.87$)
Comprehension	34.30	38.47	($F = 43.99$)*
Application	72.14	85.45	($F = 21.91$)*

*Significant at the 0.01 level

TABLE 1

In the second analysis, the median GEFT score (14) was identified to establish the criterion groups. Those scoring 0-13 were identified as field dependent; those scoring 14-18 were categorized as field independent. Again, there were significant differences between the groups on the comprehension ($p < .01$) and the application ($p < .01$) tests, but no difference on the knowledge-level test. Results are summarized in table 2:

	FIELD DEPENDENTS -	FIELD INDEPENDENTS	
N	95	104	
MEANS			
Knowledge	17.53	17.48	($F = 0.01$)
Comprehension	35.06	38.31	($F = 41.22$)*
Application	74.63	83.75	($F = 13.55$)*

*Significant at the 0.01 level

TABLE 2

A third analysis was conducted to examine possible differences between the sexes. Interestingly, this analysis revealed significant differences between males and females on the knowledge-level test, with females scoring higher ($F = 6.96$; $p < .01$). There were no differences, however, on the comprehension and application-level tests. ($N = 166$ for males; $N = 33$ for females).

IV. DISCUSSION

Except in the case of sex, the null hypothesis that no differences would exist between field dependents and field independents on the knowledge-level test was supported. The null hypotheses that there would be no differences between the Fd-Fi groups on the comprehension and application-level tests were rejected -- again, except for the analysis by sex. There are several interpretations that could account for the knowledge-level test score differences between male and female. Witkin (1977) points out that females on the

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average, score 2-3 points lower than males on the EFT; therefore, females as a group tend to be more field dependent than males. The learning style associated with field dependence should lend itself to better performance on knowledge-level tests than on test items requiring strong degrees of abstract reasoning. This group of females, however, held their own with the males on the comprehension and application-level tests; although they tended to score lower as a group, the differences were not significant.

This study supports other research suggesting a possible relationship between field dependence-independence and academic performance (i.e. Renninger & Snyder, 1983; Watkins & Astilla, 1980; Satterly and Telfer, 1979; Satterly, 1979; Witkin et al., 1977). It is particularly consistent with research indicating greater overall academic achievement among field independent students (i.e. Cross, 1977; Cohen, 1968, 1969; Vaidya & Chansky, 1980; Renninger & Snyder, 1983).

It should be noted, however, that although the group mean differences were significant at the higher levels of learning, there were several exceptions when examining individual students. One student scored 44 on the comprehension test (5th best in the class) and scored 100 on the application test (a perfect score); yet he had an EFT score of only four. By comparison, another student with an EFT score of 17 scored only 31 on the comprehension test and 60 on the application (far below the mean on both tests). Interestingly, the only student who was dismissed early from the course for failure to attain minimum standards had an EFT score of zero.

Motivation, outside influences, time allocated for study, and any number of such variables could affect individual student performance, but it appears (at least from this study) that generally, a field independent cognitive style is favorable when dealing with increasingly complex levels of subject matter. It is unclear just how important it is to academic success (after all, everyone in this group had a Master's degree); but the link to test scores on exams requiring higher levels of operative processing appears to be quite strong.

It is suspected that the field independent learner, who tends to employ a more active, inquisitive, problem-solving, hypothesis-testing approach to learning, is better able to integrate/synthesize information into more manageable units to facilitate cognitive processing and information recall. By comparison, the field dependent learner has been found to favor a more passive "spectator" approach to learning; preferring personalized, sequential, more detailed forms of instruction which facilitates memory storage (Goodenough, 1976). Unfortunately, this global approach to learning often contributes to information overload in field dependents which can interfere with memory processes (particularly during test periods).

This study could have several implications for the education of adults. It suggests that cognitive style (Fd-Fi) may be a variable for consideration when organizing instructional materials, selecting methods and strategies, and communicating content -- particularly to Fd-Fi students who measure in the extremes. A consideration of relative ability or inability at disembedding figure from ground (as indicated by scores on the EFT) could be critical to success when attempting to teach conceptual material which requires translation, interpretation, the ability to see relationships, or application in different situations. The evidence is still inferential -- but it should not be ignored.

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF PAPER Evaluating Interactive, Language Experience Based Microcomputer Software to Promote Functional Literacy

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The problem of illiteracy among adolescents and adults in the United States is not diminishing. While gains have been made in the field of adult basic reading instruction, further research and development in the areas of instructional methods and materials is needed.

The purpose of this research is the evaluation of interactive language experience based software for the promotion of basic reading and writing abilities among illiterate adults. Previous microcomputer approaches usually have used a skill and drill or phonics approach to remedial reading instruction. The approach to be described utilizes a microcomputer based, whole language approach that integrates reading and writing skills and allows the learner to use past experiences, present interests and thoughts to produce text which will become the basis for further instruction.

The microcomputer lessons are programmed to present each learner with topics of general interest to older learners. The learner chooses a topic and is then prompted by the microcomputer, through randomly generated questions, to input text about the topic. This text is saved by the microcomputer/printer station. Each student's edited text becomes the basis for further instructional activities generated by the microcomputer. A printout is given the student after each microcomputer lesson and includes the student's original text, the edited version, a list of all words the student used that day, and follow up instructional activities.

This program has been named a "High Quality Educational Program" by the U. S. Dept. of Education and is now undergoing formal evaluation. Previous pilot studies have shown promise for this software. The present effort includes 20 treatment students and 20 control students from an Urban League Street Academy for high school dropouts who score between grade 3 and grade 7 on the Degrees of Reading Power pretest. Fifty-nine out of 84 tested students scored between grade 3 and 7 in reading ability and were stratified according to DRP scores into low (grade 3 and 4 reading ability), mid (grade 5 to 6 reading ability), and high (grade 7 reading ability). Forty of these students were then randomly assigned to the control or treatment group.

Each group received approximately 22 hours of instruction over an 8 week period. The treatment group received language experience-based microcomputer instruction, and the control group received traditional reading/lnaguage arts insturction. Post testing utilized alternate forms of the Degrees of Reading Power test. The Experimental Group demonstrated greater gains in reading ability than the Control Group on the post tests.

There is a need for the development and evaluation of more effective methods and materials to promote functional literacy. The microcomputer, used with appropriate software, may provide hope for extending the reach of the teacher with high need students, providing a greater degree of individualization than was previously possible and improving student attitudes toward learning.

I. Evaluating Interactive, Language Experience Based Microcomputer Software to Promote Functional Literacy

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II. Introduction

The problem of illiteracy in the United States remains critical. In 1984, an estimated 27 million adult Americans could not read and write well enough to qualify for jobs or make full use of their potential to lead productive and satisfying lives. In addition, it is estimated that 45 million adult Americans have only marginal reading and writing skills. This means that approximately 72 million Americans, aged 17 and older, are illiterate or nearly so ("National Adult Literacy Champaign," 1984). In response to these numbers, the federal government, business, volunteer agencies, and libraries have become more involved in efforts to reduce illiteracy.

Although progress has been made in the field of adult basic education, further research and development of programs, methods, and materials is needed. Furthermore, it is necessary that these be developed with the needs of older learners in mind. This population has probably not experienced mush earlier success with traditional methods of schooling, often has vision, hearing and other physical difficulties, and attends instructional sessions when these fit into daily life schedules.

These learners need highly individualized, supportive programs of an adult nature. They may also need larger print on textual materials, tests and answer sheets. Certain adaptations for hearing may need to be made, and for some older learners writing with pen and pencil may be difficult. Many of these learners may also have nonstandard language patterns.

The instructional use of microcomputers with illiterate adolescents and adults could offer a means of individualizing instruction and of meeting certain other needs. If properly programmed, a microcomputer approach could provide necessary emotional support. There is evidence that microcomputers are often not as available for slow and/or disadvantaged students as they are for more advantaged students, and that very little quality software is being produced for less advantaged populations (Podemski, Husk & Jones, 1983). This inequity is unfortunate, because the microcomputer can be programmed to be a patient, supportive tutor and, as such, could be effective with high need students.

There is very little high quality software available for the development of basic reading and writing abilities. Most existing software utilizes a skill and drill approach with which one might question the need for a computer instead of the traditional workbook or ditto page. What is needed is software which would employ the full capabilities of the microcomputer and would allow the learner to be actively involved in highly individualized and often personalized interactions with the computer. Wray (1983) has stated that interactive microcomputer instruction could provide the humanistic, relevant approach so critical to adult basic education students.

The purpose of the project to be described was the development of interactive, language experience based software to promote functional literacy among older adolescents and adults. This program has been named a "High Quality Educational Program" by the U. S. Department of Education, 1984 Search Effort.

The language experience approach (Hall, 1976; Allen, 1972) integrates the development of reading and writing skills, and allows the learner to use experiences, interests and thoughts to produce text which will become the basis for further instruction. This approach, therefore, "matches" the learner's language patterns and background experience with the material to be used for instruction. A disadvantage of the language experience approach, however, formerly was the amount of teacher time required. The project being described uses the microcomputer with language experience based software to aid the teacher in providing highly individualized instruction to illiterate learners.

III. Methodology

Design of the Software

Two series of interactive software lessons designed to promote functional literacy among illiterate adolescents and adults have been developed for use on the TRS-80 microcomputer, Model III or 4. The software lessons begin with two keyboarding lessons, designed to introduce the keyboard in a gamelike manner. Next, the language experience lessons of the first series (designed for students reading between grade 1.5 and grade 5) present the learner with a list of general topics of interest to adolescents and adults. After choosing a topic, the student is prompted by random, computer generated questions to input information about the topic into the computer. The text input of the learner is stored on each student's disk to later be edited by the teacher and the student at a microcomputer/printer station, after which the edited text will be permanently stored on the student disk. This edited text will be used as the basis for a number of instructional activities, all emphasizing a meaning-based approach to reading instruction. Optional audio tapes, automatically activated by the microcomputer, accompany each lesson for those students who need help in reading lesson instructions.

The second series requires a reading ability of grade 3.5 to 7.9 and serves as a bridge between the students served by the first series and students nearing readiness for the General Equivalency Degree. The language experience lessons of the second series presents learners with situations or survival topics from daily life and encourage the learner to input original text regarding these into the microcomputer. This input is then extended through questions and prompts generated by the microcomputer. Each language experience lesson in this series is accompanied by an audio cassette to provide students with an introduction to potentially new or difficult words used in the lesson. As in the first series, after each lesson the student goes to the teacher or an aide at a microcomputer/printer station where the lesson's text is edited by the teacher and the student together. A printout is generated which includes the student's original text, the edited text, a list of words used that day by the student, and follow-up activities.

Both series contain simple line editors which students can choose to use to edit their own text input. There are two teacher software programs for each series: the first is a teacher editing progrim, or word processor, and the second includes programs for generating follow-up instructional activities. Each series includes student lesson disks, teacher disks, audio tapes, a teacher's manual, documentation, and the Adult Basic Word List (Wangberg, Thompson & Levitov, 1984).

Pilot Studies

Pilot studies were conducted with both software series at an Adult Education Center located in the inner city of a large southern metropolitan area. In a study of the first series, 16 students, aged 17 to 58 and scoring between grade 1.5 and grade 5.0 on pretests using the Nelson Reading Test, showed an average of one-half year growth after an average of 9 lessons.

A second study of this software series used the Woodcock Reading Mastery Tests, Word Comprehension and Passage Comprehension, as pre and post instruments as the Nelson Reading Test had appeared to be somewhat dated. The age range of students was similar to the first study. Attendance was more irregular in this study, perhaps due to summer months. Six students were available for post testing and averaged 4 months' growth in reading ability after an average of 11 lessons. The Woodcock test also had certain disadvantages for this project, being individually administered and depending on oral student responses which might discriminate against nonstandard speakers or ESL students.

The second software series was piloted using the Degrees of Reading Power (DRP) test, Levels 6 and 8, Forms A and B, as pre and post instruments. This test was chosen for a number of reasons: it is current, normed with a sample representative of national characteristics, appropriate in content for older students, emphasizes reading comprehension, and does not overrely on grade level score comparisons. The latter should not be overemphasized with older learners, as their ages are not typical of the school aged normative samples used for most standardized tests. In addition, the DRP does not require time limits for testing. Since older subjects tend to respond more slowly than younger subjects, time limits may lower their scores and not indicate true ability (Sheehy, 1976).

In scoring responses on the DRP, raw scores are converted to mid-instructional reading level DRP scores, measured in DRP units. A DRP unit is a numerical representation of reading comprehension. Test forms range from grade 3 through grade 14 reading ability, but these grade recommendations are approximate because each form measures a wide range of reading ability. Each test form is equated to all other DRP test forms, and all results are reported on a common scale. Unlike conventional standardized tests, which use different tasks in different grades and assume a normal distribution of abilities in each grade, the DRP uses a single reading task (similar to Cloze passages) and makes no assumptions concerning the distribution of abilities within grades. This provides important flexibility in assigning an appropriate test level for a given student.

Growth is interpreted by comparing pre and post DRP unit scores. If desired, DRP unit scores can be converted to grade level scores using the DRP national norming tables. These grade level scores indicate the student has fallen at or very near the fiftieth percentile for that grade on DRP norming conversion tables.

The first pilot of the second software series showed a mean gain of 8 DRP units, or one grade level, for the 10 study subjects after an average of 8 lessons.

The second pilot study with this series used a control group. Each group contained 9 students, aged 17 to 67 years. DRP scores on the pretest for the Experimental Group ranged from 41 to 67, with a mean of 55.2. DRP scores for the Control Group on the pretest ranged from 39 to 65, with a mean of 54.3. On the post test, scores for the Experimental Group ranged from 53 to 73, with a mean of 63. Post test scores for the Control Group ranged from 44 to 69, with a mean of 58.7. The Control Group gained an average of 4.4 DRP units, while the Experimental Group gained an average of 7.8 DRP units. DRP national norming tables were used to convert DRP scores to grade level equivalents. The Experimental Group gained one normed grade level in reading ability, while the Control Group did not show a change in normed grade level.

Field Testing

An eight week field test using a control and an experimental group was then designed to evaluate this software. The design included a DRP pretest for both groups, traditional reading/language arts instruction or the experimental microcomputer software instruction, followed by an alternate form DRP post test. The sample population was drawn from the student population enrolled at an Urban League Street Academy for high school dropouts and adults without high school degrees. Student ages ranged from 17 to 27. All 84 enrolled students were pretested with the Degrees of Reading Power test, Levels 6 and 8.

Fifty-nine students fell within our range of interest, receiving DRP unit scores between 30 and 55. DRP norm tables suggest this would correspond to reading levels of approximately grade 3 to grade 7. Students scoring lower or higher than this were not further considered to be part of the sample, as the lower scores were on the extreme low end of the DRP and, therefore, likely to be less valid, and students scoring above grade 7 were likely to profit more from instructional programs designed for better readers.

These 59 student pretests were ordered by DRP score and stratified into three groups: low (DRP of 30 to 40); mid (DRP of 41-50); and high (DRP of 51-55). The maximum size instructional group was determined to be 20 students due to the number of microcomputers available. The study sample of 40 students was drawn equally from these three groups (13 low, 14 mid, and 13 high) using a table of random numbers. Forty of these subjects were then assigned randomly by coin toss to the Experimental or the Control Group.

An eight week period of instruction occurred for each group. The Control Group received traditional reading/language arts instruction, and the Experimental Group received language experience based microcomputer instruction. Average total hours of instruction for the Control Group was 22.1. Average total hours of instruction for the Experimental Group was 21.7.

IV Findings

Both attendance and attrition tend to be areas of difficulty in adult basic education research and instruction. Because students are not required to attend instructional sessions, attendance tends to be irregular, and attrition rates are high. In this study, 10 of the Control Group students were available for post testing, and 11 of the Experimental Group students were available.

The mean pretest score for the Control Group was 40.9 DRP units, equivalent to grade 5, with a range of 28 to 55 DRP units. The mean pretest score for the Experimental Group was 42.5 DRP units, also equivalent to grade 5, with a range of 30 to 54 DRP units. The mean post test score for the Control Group was 43.5, with a range of 29 to 57 DRP units; and the mean post test score for the Experimental Group was 48.1, with a range of 36 to 59 DRP units. The average gain in reading ability for the Control Group was 2.6 DRP units; the average gain for the Experimental Group was 5.6 DRP units. If one wished to convert this to show grade level growth, the Control Group showed no change in grade level, and the Experimental Group showed a one year increase to grade 6.

V. Discussion

While the sample size is small and attrition a problem, this field test as well as previous pilot studies indicate that a microcomputer approach utilizing appropriate instructional software can hold promise for promoting functional literacy among illiterate adolescents and adults. Test results and observation also indicate that language experience based software is appropriate for improving the reading abilities of this population.

Our observations indicated that many of these learners were somewhat afraid of the microcomputer at first. Some of the adolescents and young adults had "fortified" themselves with certain substances before the first few days of instruction as reported by their teacher and our observation. This decreased after one or two days as the students began to relax and enjoy the microcomputer. Some of the older adults in pilot studies were hesitant and slow at first but became comfortable with the microcomputer and, in fact, were some of the most regularly attending and serious students. For a number of older adults, "typing" into the microcomputer was easier than writing with pen or pencil.

The self-confidence of the subjects appeared to increase as they progressed through the program. Discipline was no problem which surprised their regular teacher who reported different behavior with traditional classroom instruction with the same subjects. The students demonstrated initiative and independence by quickly finding their disks or printouts at the beginning of each session and in getting and remaining "on task." Similar gains in self-confidence and motivation as a result of microcomputer instruction have been reported by others (Fisher, 1984).

Comments such as "Micro, I like talking with you," and "He always remembers what I say," were frequent. While we might have expected younger students to personify the computer, it was somewhat surprising to see older learners doing so. The computer appeared to have an almost therapeutic effect on many students, providing highly personalized instruction and interaction which seemed important and effective with these learners. These effects are not due to the computer alone -- they depend on the software being used.

All of these pilot and field test studies are, of course, necessarily limited. The number of subjects in each study is not large, and the attrition rate is problematic--a typical difficulty with adult basic education research. We can, however, see that each experimental group did show growth. While additional evaluation is necessary, it appears that the microcomputer, used with appropriate software, may provide hope for extending the reach of the teacher with high need students, providing a greater degree of individualization than was previously possible. This should allow teachers additional instructional opportunities, freeing them from some of the routine tasks of student instruction and allowing them to concentrate on individual instruction without detracting from the level of instruction available to other members of the class.

Used in this way, the microcomputer can become more than a novelty and more than a tool. The microcomputer used with high quality software can extend the power of the teacher and the student truly becoming an "instrument of education and of educators" (Block, 1984).

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RECONCEPTUALIZING ADULT EDUCATION PARTICIPATION:

AN EMPIRICAL TEST

Peter S. Cookson*

The purpose of this paper is to report the findings generated thus far in an on-going study of adult education participation guided by a comprehensive theoretical model of individual discretionary behavior. The study constitutes one of the first attempts to explicate a multi-disciplinary model which takes in all classes of relevant variables, thus building on existing knowledge and theory about adult education participation, and allows empirical testing of some relationships which have been taken as givens in most past research. Unlike a previous report of this study (Cookson and Molina, 1984) which focussed on the relationship of occupational conditions, vis-a-vis formal education attainment, on adult education participation, the focus of this paper is on the effects of variables in all of the five different classes of independent variables. Because of the limitations of space, however, only the results of the analysis of zero-order correlations will be presented here.

Review of the literature on adult education participation reveals two general findings: while most of the research on adult education participation conducted to date has been atheoretical, most theoretical explanations which have been advanced have lacked empirical referents. Rare indeed is the report of a sustained research effort guided by and designed to test a systematic theory of adult education participation.

In drawing on a comprehensive, multivariate, and inter-disciplinary theoretical model of social participation, described also as individual discretionary behavior, this study parts company with previous work on adult education participation. The model which has been developed by sociology professor, Dr. David Horton Smith, of Boston College aptly describes not only participation of adults in voluntary learning activities, but also participation in such activities as altruistic giving, political participation, religious participation, and organized recreational programs (Smith,1980). Applying the model to the study of participation of men and women in learning activities makes it possible to draw comparisons with other forms of participation.

The name of the model, the interdisciplinary, sequential specificity, time allocation, lifespan (ISSTAL) model, aptly describes its functional components. It is interdisciplinary in the sense that it identifies six classes of independent variables within a logical causal and temporal system predictive of social participation: (1) situational and definition of the situation variables, (2) retained information variables, (3) attitudinal disposition variables, (4) personality variables, (5) social background variables, and (6) external context variables.

The model posits a causal and temporal ordering among the six classes of independent variables and between them and the criterion variable of adult education. One implicit hypothesis is that the influence exerted on participation by all antecedent variables is mediated by all subsequent variables in the model. In general terms, external context, comprising the biophysical, cultural, and social structural characteristics of the environment in which the people live, sets the broad parameters within which the range of lifestyles and day-to-day functioning of people in a society is determined. Social background characteristics, comprising health condition, race, ethnicity, socio-economic status, wealth and access to resources, are determined to some extent by the external context and, in turn, converge to shape personality and intellectual functioning. These latter, longer-standing and relatively unchanging elements of a person's psychological apparatus in turn determine the saliency of certain more transitory and less trans-situational attitudinal dispositions which include values, attitudes, interests, and intentions. These latter dispositions to behave in certain ways influence elements of retained information: images, beliefs, and knowledge about the world, about the meaning of specific and general forms of participation, and about how significant others view one's own participation. Such retained information in turns contributes to the way in which people define specific forms of participation. The ways in which the person defines certain activities of course determines the extent to which participation in that activity will continued. Smith perceives the direct paths of influence among the classes of independent variables to exceed any possible indirect or mediated paths of influence.

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Another hypothesis implicit in the model is that the closer a variable is situated to the criterion behavior, the greater the magnitude of impact of that variable. The time allocation aspect of the model accounts for the postulate that participation in a particular form of individual discretionary behavior is not an isolated phenomenon, but rather comprises part of a generalized phenomenon of participation in a variety of individual discretionary behaviors. Likewise the nature and extent of current participation at any one stage in a person's life are expected to reflect a consistent pattern of participation which continues across the lifespan.

The ISSTAL model may be used as a standard by which to measure the degree of completeness of any given theoretical explanation of adult education participation. It may also enable identification of those variables which may be overemphasized in previous participation research to the exclusion of other variables perhaps equally or more important as predictors of participation.

With financial backing from the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada, the researcher designed an empirical test of the adequacy of the ISSTAL model as a theoretical explanation of participation in adult education. In the sections below, the nature of that study will be described and several preliminary findings generated by the analysis thus far will be presented. First, however, the research hypotheses will be described and the constituent elements of those hypotheses will be defined.

THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The general research hypotheses, in null form, stated that the relationships between the independent variables identified by the model did not exert any influence upon the criterion variable of adult education participation. In more specific terms, the hypotheses may be stated as follows:

(1) There is no linear relationship between adult education participation and the five sets of independent variables identified in the present study, for example, adult education participation is not related to social background, personality characteristics, attitudinal dispositions, retained information, or definition of the situation.

(2) None of the 27 independent variables identified by the present study has a linear effect on adult education participation once the effects of other independent variables are adjusted for. Any observed relationships between an independent variable in the study and adult education participation is merely due to sampling fluctuation.

VARIABLES RELEVANT TO THE STUDY

The Main Criterion Variable

Adult education participation is broadly defined as those activities people systematically and deliberately plan and carry out by themselves or with the help of others in informal, formal, and societal settings, for purposes of acquiring knowledge or information, changing attitudes or improving their skills. In this study adult education participation was operationally defined as the combined scores on four subscales (a total of 12 items) identified through a factor analysis of the short version of the Litchfield (1965) Leisure Activities Survey: viz., general information-seeking behaviors, specific information-seeking behaviors, informative meeting attendance, and course-taking.

Independent Variables

The limitations of space preclude presentation of constitutive and operational definitions for each of the 27 independent variables. Such information may be obtained upon request from the researcher. The independent variables, by variable class, were as follows: situational variable: margin; retained information: self-directed learning orientation and other-directed learning orientation; attitudinal disposition: strength of religious belief, perception of schooling experience, and school achievement; personality attributes: authoritarian-conservativism, anxiety-self-esteem, anxiety-powerlessness, and self-confidence (Kohn and Schooler, 1969 and 1973); social background: (occupational conditions:) closeness of supervision, substantive complexity of job, job satisfaction, job commitment, and job routinization (Kohn, 1969); home ownership, family income, personal income, self-reported social class, current employment status, fulltime employment status, perceived place in career, occupational status, years of residence in community, number of moves since age 18, formal education attainment, and age.

POPULATION AND SAMPLE

A random sample was drawn using the following procedure: (1) using the 1981 census data, the area in Vancouver with the lowest income per capita and lowest level of formal education attainment was identified; (2) having localized the lowest socioeconomic area in East Vancouver, four enumeration areas were randomly selected from the census tracts for that area; (3) from each enumeration area, 250 addresses were randomly selected; (4) for each address, names of householders were identified in the *City Directory*; (5) letters describing the study, inviting their participation, and announcing that they would be contacted for an interview appointment were then mailed to the total sample of 1,000 household heads; (6) two weeks after letters were mailed, people were contacted by telephone; and (7) interviews were then arranged with all persons who reported current employment, English fluency, and willingness to participate.

Following this seven step procedure, a sample of 50 respondents was interviewed during the summer and fall of 1983. The fact that interviews were completed with only five percent of the original sample of 1,000 contacted by mail may be explained as follows: (1) 28 percent were not able to be contacted by telephone; (2) 25 percent had changed residence, as evidenced by the return of the letters; (3) 19 percent were determined when contacted by telephone to be unable to speak English; (4) 18 percent did not qualify for the interview by virtue of retiree or housewife status; (5) five percent reported a lack of either time or interest or presented some other excuse for declining to be interviewed. The 50 individuals who were interviewed thus represented 50 percent of all eligible individuals reached by telephone.

DATA ANALYSIS

The 50 completed answer forms were coded and recorded for subsequent analysis. Frequency distributions, correlations, partial correlations, and regression analyses were conducted to determine the strength of the relationships between formal education attainment, occupational conditions, and adult education participation. Because the model posited causal relationships among the variables, the hierarchical regression method was applied in order to enter the independent variables in a predetermined order. The purpose of this procedure was to obtain an equation that best predicted adult education participation as a function of five classes of independent variables: situational factors, retained information, attitudinal dispositions, personality attributes and social background.

The variables were then entered into a multiple regression equation to determine the strength and direction of the association among the variables. The resultant beta weights represent the predictor variables' power when other variables are simultaneously held constant. Linear multiple regression, however, has some limitations. When it is used, the non-linear components of the data are lost; it is therefore assumed that data should have or show some linearity. Because the data for this study showed a normal distribution when frequencies were computed, it was assumed that they had sufficient linearity to meet this assumption. The results of the multiple regression were entered into a path analytic diagram to illustrate the hypothesized causal relations posited by the model.

FINDINGS

Because the sample represented 50 percent of the respondents who were *both* randomly selected and were eligible for interview, one of our concerns was the representativeness of the sample. It was with relief, therefore, that we discovered few dissimilarities between our respondents and the population from which it was drawn. Approximately 14 percent of the sample had completed less than nine years of formal schooling, 52 percent between 9 and 13 years, and 34 percent more than 13. Seventy percent of the respondents had never attended a college or university. The majority (70 percent) of the subjects earned less than $30,000 (Canadian) per year. Although the majority of respondents were employed full-time (68 percent) and six percent were employed part-time, the rate of unemployment among the respondents was 26 percent. With respect to place of birth, 40 percent of the sample was born outside of Canada. The age range of respondents was 25 to 64, with the mean age of 42 years and the modal age of 39 years.

Correlation was used to examine relationships among the variables in the model, permitting inferences about the degree of closeness and direction of linear relationships among the variables. Of the 27 independent variables posited by the theoretical model guiding the inquiry, seven wre found to have significant (p<.05) zero order correlations. the zero order correlations for each independent variable is presented in Table 1.

Table 1.

Zero Order Correlations -- Independent Variables and

Adult Education Participation

Independent Variable	r	Level of Signif.
Margin	-.086	ns
Self-Directed Learning Orientation	-.048	ns
Other-Directed Learning Orientation	-.109	ns
Strength of Religious Belief	-.261	ns
Authoritarian-Conservativism	.166	ns
Anxiety-Self-Esteem	.117	ns
Self-Confidence	-.410	.003
Anxiety-Powerlessness	.079	ns
Closeness of Supervision	.007	ns
Substantive Complexity of Job	-.382	ns
Job Satisfaction	-.412	.003
Job Commitment	-.020	ns
Job Routinization	.182	ns
Home Ownership	.004	ns
Family Income	.180	ns
Personal Income	.263	ns
Self-Reported Social Class	.423	.002
Current Employment Status	.030	.838
Fulltime Employment Status	.164	ns
Perceived Place in Career	-.200	ns
Occupational Status	.371	.008
Number of Moves since 18 Years of Age	-.001	ns
Perception of Schooling	.452	.004
School Achievement	.484	.002
Formal Education Attainment	.287	.043
Age	-.051	ns

As indicated in the above table, self-confidence was the one personality attribute found to be significantly correlated with adult education participation. Not easily explained, however, is the negative correlation coefficinet. Apparently the respondents who have less confidence are more coefficinet. Apparently the respondents who have less confidence are more likely to participate in learning activities than those with greater self-confidence. The most significant correlation of any of the occupational conditions was noted for job satisfaction. Again, it was a negative correlation, suggesting that the more dissatisfied the respondents were, the more likely they were to engage in learning activities. This finding is not so striking, given the fact that most learning activities are in relation either to present or anticipated future job.

It is noteworthy that in this study an attempt was made to follow the advice of Cross (1980) with respect to further analysis of the most often observed correlation between formal education attainment and adult education participation. She suggested that data should also be collected relative to the academic performance and the subjective meaning of formal schooling. Accordingly, in this study, respondents were asked to report the degree to which they enjoyed their schooling experience and to report their overall academic performance. As shown in Table 1, both of these variables were correlated more strongly with adult education participation than did formal education attainment.

DISCUSSION

In this article, only the results of the zero order correlation analysis have been reported. The results of the multiple regression analysis, conducted to "break down" the overall association among the variables, will be reported separately. The purpose of those analyses will be to ascertain the effects of each independent variable, controlling for all others. Too, the regression analyses will permit determination of both direct and indirect paths of influence between each independent variable identified in the theoretical model guiding the inquiry and the main criterion variable of adult education participation. The findings of the complete analysis are anticipated to show that the utility of further adult education participation research has not yet been exhausted.

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ALTERNATE

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ABSTRACT

This study attempted to determine if the currently popular take-home exam was as effective a learning vehicle as the classic in-class exam, in an adult education setting. Nine classes from five universities were randomized into two equal groups. Members of Group A were given a take-home test and members of Group B were administered an in-class test. One week later, an unannounced test, accompanied by a questionnaire, was given to all participants. The latter, an objective test, measured the first three levels of Bloom's Hierarchy of Cognitive Learning. Three two-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) indicated that the B Group members attained significantly higher learning performances than did the A Group members, in all categories. The participants admitted that they studied harder for an in-class exam. The results suggested that the in-class exam produced a greater amount of study and learning in a college level adult education environment. However, there are other variables one must consider.

Robert Marsh, Univ. of Tenn. at Chattanooga

EVALUATION IN ADULT EDUCATION

Introduction

This study was an effort to determine whether the take-home test was as good or better as a vehicle for learning than the classic in-class test in an adult education environment. The results of this experiment were important because instructors are increasingly deleting the in-class test (Gay and Gallagher, 1976) and there seems to be no empirical basis for the belief that the take-home test is as effective. Thus, the current trend toward eliminating formal written tests may actually mitigate against one of education's major goals, student retention of learned concepts.

Conceptual Framework

Probably the major concern over classroom exams is that they cause debilitating anxiety. However, research on this claim is inconsistent. For example, it has been demonstrated that in a test situation, anxiety has a negative effect (Sarason, et.al., 1960), that it has a positive effect (Castaneda, et.al., 1964), and that it has no effect (Denny, et.al., 1964) on test performance.

Some authors have hypothesized that it is the relative amount of anxiety that affects test performance. Anastasi (1976) argues that testing has a total positive effect if accomplished properly. She states that the relationship between anxiety and test performance is probably non-linear and that some anxiety is good while too much is detrimental. Many practices have been designed to dispel anxiety in the classroom test environment, but she points out that "The examiner's own manner and a well organized, smoothly running testing operation will contribute toward the same goal." (Anastasi, 1976). Although students experience differing levels of anxiety before exams, it is probably not a good idea to eliminate testing for that reason, alone. Our aim should not be to completely avoid stress, which is not realistic in our world and which would be impossible, but rather we should learn how to recognize our typical response to stress and then try to adjust our living accordingly (Selye, 1978).

There was a paucity of specific literature which compared take-home exams and in-class exams. There was evidence that oral and written testing were equally effective and that either method was better than no testing at all (Calhoun, et.al., 1962). Also, studies have shown that academic achievement of undergraduate students was lower under the pass/fail grading system than under the standard grading system (Bain, et.al., 1973 and Gold, et.al., 1971).

In 1976, a study (Gay & Gallaher, 1976) was performed in which a large basic research class of undergraduates were randomly divided into three sections. One section was given periodic take-home exercises, the second section was given periodic tests and the third group was given a choice of either doing the take-home exercises or taking periodic tests. It is interesting to note that no one in the third group elected to take tests. Except for these different treatments, all students were treated as equally as possible. At the end of the course, the same surprise exam was given to all three sections. The results of the tests showed that the group that was given tests scored significantly higher than the other two.

Gay and Gallahger did not attempt to investigate the reason for their findings. However, under conditions of experimental controls, it would seem logical to reason that those students that expended more study effort would get the better grades. Thus, an experiment of this nature should also attempt to determine if there is a relationship between the higher academic performance and study effort.

This study differs from the preceding one in the following ways:

a. It included a variety of classes in the behavioral and applied areas of study. Therefore, the results were likely to be generalizable to a wider audience.

b. It attempted to measure specific levels of learning as defined by the Bloom Hierarchy of Cognitive Learning (Bloom, et.al., 1956).

c. It attempted to include only adult students in the total sample.

d. Finally, an attempt was made to identify causality with regard to the results of the experiment.

The objectives of this study were:

a. To determine which of two evaluation treatments, the take-home or in the in-class test, would result in greater learning at the first three levels of cognition in Bloom's Hierarachy, which are: knowledge, comprehension, and application. (Bloom, et.al., 1956).

b. To determine which level or levels of cognition are more affected by each type of evaluation. For example, if there is a significant difference in measured learning between the two groups, then it would be interesting to know if it was the learned ability to recall, to comprehend, or to apply concepts that was affected most.

c. To attempt to develop a logical explanation for the results of the study by trying to determine if there was a relationship between the type of treatment, a student's study effort, and student learning.

d. Finally, to address the above objectives within the framework of an adult education environment.

Method

Nine classes from four different universities were recruited as participants. There were 202 students in the total sample which included classes in Public Personnel Administration, Psychological

Foundations of Learning, Research in Special Education, Tests and Measurements, Educational Statistics, Human Growth and Development, Educational Research, and two different sections of Introduction to Research in Secondary Education. Early in the academic semester, each participating instructor was given a full verbal briefing on the procedures. Each instructor also received a packet with written instructions. Generally, the students were told that half would receive an in-class test for their mid-term and the other half would receive a take-home exam. The students were told that this was a scientific experiment, that no one would be hurt by its results, and that anyone who was not satisfied with his or her grade would have the option of taking another exam. It was expected that this procedure would have a neutralizing effect on the anxiety factor.

The classes were all typically adult continuing education graduate evening classes. The range of ages went from 19 to 60 years. There were only 11 undergraduate upperclass persons in the total experiment of 202 participants and two were 19 and nine were 20 years old. This occurred because every instituion utilized had a policy whereby undergraduates could take a graduate course under certain conditions. The mean age of the total sample was 30.98 years.

About two weeks before the mid-term, the classes were randomized into two equal groups, A and B. (See the design in figure 1.) In each class, members of the A Group (also selected randomly) were given a take-home test to return one week later. Members of the B Group were given an identical in-class test. All tests utilized in this study were the multiple choice type. The A Group students submitted their completed exams at the same time that the B Group took it in class. One week later, a surprise exam was given to both groups during regular class period. The latter covered the same material upon which they had been tested the previous week. Since members of both groups were taught by the same teacher under identical conditions, the experimental and control subjects received as equivalent exposure as was possible with a classroom type of experiment. Only the treatment (type of test) differed for each class.

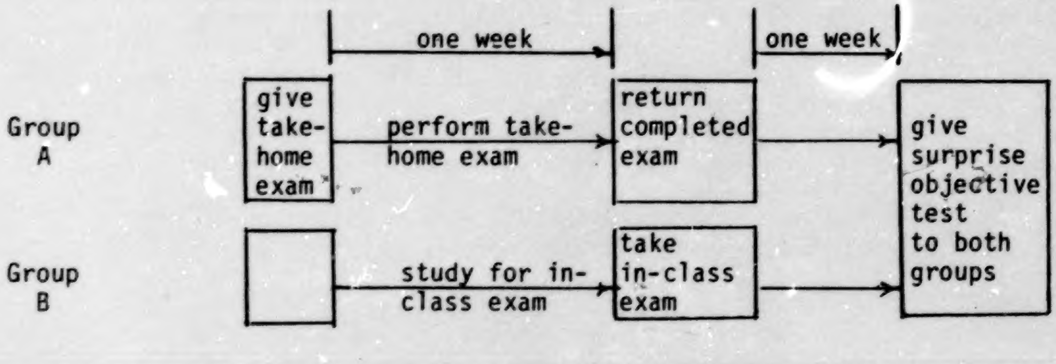

Figure 1. The design used in this experiment. (Groups were selected randomly.)

The surprise test had 50 multiple choice questions; 25 of which measured knowledge and 25 of which measured a combination of comprehension and application of the course material. The latter categories included the first three levels of cognitive learning in Bloom's Hierarchy (Bloom, et.al., 1956). Comprehension and application types of items were combined in order to simplify the experiment and, more importantly, because Bloom considered them to be closely related. In fact, in quantification procedures, they are usually combined because the comprehension of a notion is best measured by applying it. A survey was also attached to assist in determining the extent to which the students were motivated to study and learn in preparation for each type of exam. There was 96.1 percent response rate to the questionnaire. Finally, a two-way (2 x 10) analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedure was utilized. (Ary & Jacobs, 1976).

Results

Group B (in-class exam) scored significantly higher than did Group A (take-home exam) in all categories of the surprise test. The subjects in B Group exhibited greater total learning ($F = 13.14$; 1,8 df; $P < .0004$), greater knowledge ($F = 15.41$; 1,8 df; $P < ,0001$), and greater comprehension and application ($F = 6.03$; 1,8 df; $P < .0150$) of the subject matter. The interaction effect in all three computer produced ANOVA's were insignificant at the .05 level of significance. Also, in each category the independent variable (type of test) and the dependent variable (learning) were highly correlated. Specifically, for total learning $r = .751$; for knowledge $r = .748$; and for comprehension and application $r = .699$. These data depict a highly significant difference between the performances of the two groups.

On the survey, which was attached to the surprise test, one of the questions asked, "If you were a teacher and you wanted your students to really learn the subject matter, which type of test would you give?" Participant response was that fifty-eight or 28.7 percent would give a take-home exam, one hundred fourteen or 56.4 percent would give an in-class exam, and thirty or 14.9 percent were not sure. They appeared to say that the in-class exam was more effective, by an almost two to one margin.

Two questions were devised to determine participant attitudes toward preparing for his/her particular types of exam. The first question asked the student to place him/herself on a continuum of one through ten, indicating the amount of effort he/she put into studying the material covered on the teacher-made test given the week prior to the surpise test. The second question, also on a continuum of one through ten, asked the student how much study effort he/she would have made had the other type of test (take-home or in-class) had been assigned to him/her.

The A Group scored significantly lower on the first question ($t = 3.90$, 111 df, $P < .0005$). Thus, in effect, these students said that they would have studied harder had they been given an in-class exam. Conversely, the B Group scored significantly lower on the second question ($t = 3.59$, 106 df, $P < .0005$). One can interpret this as saying that they would have studied less had they been given a take-home exam. One conclusion which would explain the difference in learning between the groups is that those students who had the in-class test expended more study effort, by their own admission.

Conclusion and Implications

These data present evidence in favor of an in-class test as opposed to a take-home test for a variety of adult students enrolled in several varied college courses. In this experiment, the type of test utilized had an effect on the amount of learning by the student on the first three levels of Bloom's Hierarchy of Cognitive Learning; knowledge, comprehension and application. Clearly, the in-class test was the superior treatment and the students seemed to agree.

Although this experiment dealt with only the first three levels of Bloom's Hierarchy of Cognitive Learning, one should keep in mind the meaning of the work "hierarchy." Bloom (1956) said that in his hierarchy, the ability to perform at a higher level of learning is a function of the ability to peform at a lower more basic level. If one accepts this notion, then the results of this experiment could have wide ranging implications.

Although these finding suggest that the in-class test, as a method of evaluation, promotes greater learning than does the take-home exam, there are several reasons why one cannot say that the former is the only valid method by which to promote effective learning; nor can one conclude that the latter method is invalid. The a problem is very much more complex, In performing the art of tests and measurements, the teacher must consider the goals and objectives of the learning situation. A primary consideration is the type of learning that is desired.

This experiment does suggest that one should probably not eliminate, completely, the in-class test as a useful tool in the facilitator's repertoire of evaluating adult academic performance. However, more research is needed with emphasis on the goals and purposes of exams and also on ways by which to measure and compare levels of learning in the affective domain.

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ALTERNATE PAPER

Theoretical Implications of Perceived Learning Benefits on Participation in Noncredit Adult Learning: Testing a Typology

Charles R. Oaklief
(Kansas State University)

This research tested the relevancy of selected theoretical constructs advocating expanded adult learning opportunities in the State of Kansas by testing actual benefits accuring across seven noncredit adult learner participant groups represented by 1,355 randomly selected adult learners.
The population included participants from Cooperative Extension Pride/Non Pride, registered nurses, business managers, vocational/technical, community college, and adult basic education groups.
The research determined the impact of such definitive rationale for participation in noncredit experiences as learning to cope with technological change to the most conjectural motivations for participation in learning such as indirect societal benefits and self-fulfillment.
The findings refute, compliment, and extend implications of earlier participation research on voluntary learning as reported by Cross (1981), Tough (1973), Fitzgerald (1984) and as indicated by the Educational Testing Service (1972).
The research correlates the values of perceived benefits of participation in noncredit adult learning dichotomously over economic and non-economic benefits of adult learning (Peterson, 1979). Subsynthesis testing was completed on indirect and direct benefit catergories including societal, personal/developmental, intellectual, personality, consumer, and avocational/cultural benefits.
Multiple correlations, analysis of variance, and regression analysis established that adults expect both subject area knowledge and improved interest and skill in learning from their participation, a fact in which proponents of the lifelong learning movement may elate. Adults expected and received a balance between economic and non-economic benefits; quite contrary to suggested rationale.
Overall benefit values specifically correlated with learning satisfaction, strength of learning experiences, and opportunity to participate in the learning experience as suggested by foundation theorists (Rogers, 1948; McClusky, 1958) and contemporaries (Houle, 1955; Knowles, 1970; Tough, 1971).

Theoretical Implications of Perceived Learning Benefits on Participation in Noncredit Adult Learning: Testing A Typology

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This study determined perceived benefits of participation in noncredit adult learning activities by seven participant groups from Kansas including adult basic education, business managers, vocational-technical, community college, nurses, and Cooperative Extension Pride and Nonpride groups. The 19 possible benefits provided data for testing Peterson's (1979, pp.428-429) typology of lifelong learning. The research determined the perceived impact of such definitive rationale for participation in noncredit experiences as learning to cope with technological change to the most conjectural motivations for participation in learning such as indirect societal benefits and self-fulfillment. Significant differences were analyzed for benefits of participation, satisfaction, strenghts, opportunity to participate, recognition received, length of the learning experience, and demographic data for each of the seven participant groups.

Method

This descriptive study was designed to identify the values received from participation in noncredit adult education across nineteen benefit variables derived from Peterson's typology of benefits of lifelong learning. The data was collected from a mailed questionnaire which included demographic information, benefit perceptions, reasons for enrollment, satisfaction with the learning experience, strength of the learning experience, opportunity to participate, recognition for successful completion, and length of the learning experience. The questionnaire was validated by pilot testing with two groups of adult learners prior to final application. Item analysis testing of the instrument revealed values of .97 and .84 for the two pilot test groups. Questionnaires were then mailed to randomly selected members from each of the survey groups which resulted in 1,335 completed questionnaires for a return rate of 68 percent.

Results

The degree of personal benefit received from the noncredit learning activities was calculated for each of the nineteen possible benefits. Mean scores were figured for these actual benefits by assigning a 1 to "little or no" benefit, a 2 for "some" benefit, a 3 to a "definite" benefit, and a 4 to a "great" benefit. The mean scores were then ranked for each of the seven provider groups and for the total population.

According to Peterson's typology (1979), thirteen of the benefits were considered to be noneconomic benefits and 6 were considered to be economic benefits. All seven provider groups received both noneconomic and economic benefits from their noncredit adult learning experiences. The total population mean benefit score, out of a possible high of 4, was 2.77 for the combined nineteen benefits, 2.77 for the noneconomic benefits, and 2.77 for the economic benefits. The highest ranked benefit for the total population was "becoming better informed about some subject or area of knowledge" with a mean score of 3.0, the second highest ranked benefit was "learning about recent knowledge affecting my work" with a mean score of 2.92, the third highest ranked benefit was "gaining satisfaction from being involved in self-improvement with a mean score of 2.91, the forth highest ranked benefit was "preparing to handle increased job responsibilities which will make my job more important" with a mean score of 2.90, and the fifth highest ranked benefit was "improving my interest and/or skill in learning more" with a mean score of 2.86.

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Analysis of Significant Differences by Factors for the Five Top Ranked Benefits

For purposes of this research presentation, the analysis of significant differences was limited to the top five perceived benefits and tested against demographic and environmental factors which provided a data base for conclusions and recommendations.

Highest Ranked Benefit: Becoming better informed about some subject or area of knowledge.

(a) There were significant differences ($F = 3.77$, d.f. = 4/1194, $p \leq .0047$) among three of the age groupings with those under 25 years of age ($\underline{X} = 3.14$) scoring higher than those 35-49 years of age ($\underline{X} = 2.94$) and those 50-64 years of age ($\underline{X} = 2.93$).

(b) There were significant differences ($F = 7.17$, d.f. = 4/1118, $p \leq .0000$) among type of recognition with those receiving a certificate ($\underline{X} = 3.12$) scoring higher than those receiving a continuing education unit ($\underline{X} = 2.94$) and those receiving no special recognition ($\underline{X} = 2.85$) for successful completion of the learning experience.

(c) There were significant differences ($F = 4.91$, d.f. = 6/1196, $p \leq .0001$) among the participant groups with the business managers ($\underline{X} = 3.22$) scoring higher than the community college group ($\underline{X} = 2.94$) and the nurses ($\underline{X} = 2.91$).

The highest ranked benefit, "becoming better informed about some subject or areas of knowledge," is an intellectural benefit and may be either academic or general education. This area benefits the personal development of individuals and is considered to be a noneconomic benefit by Peterson (1979, p.428). As indicated, the analysis of variance revealed significant differences on this benefit across three age groupings with younger adults being significantly higher than older adults. Data on the type of recogniton for successfully completing the learning experience revealed that receiving a certificate was more significant then either accruing continuing education units or receiving no special recognition. Business managers reported significatnly greater benefits from "becoming better informed about some subject or areas of knowledge" than community college and nurse noncredit adult learners.

Second Highest Ranked Benefit: Learning about recent knowledge affecting my work.

(a) There was a significant difference ($\underline{F} = 4.11$, d.f. = 3/840, $\underline{p} \leq .0065$) between two of the sex/marital groups with the married males ($\underline{X} = 3.05$) scoring higher than the married females ($\underline{X} = 2.86$).

(b) There was a significant difference ($\underline{F} = 3.38$, d.f. = 3/840, $\underline{p} \leq .0179$) between two of the employment groups with those employed full time ($\underline{X} = 2.98$) scoring higher than those not employed ($\underline{X} = 2.75$).

(c) There was a significant difference ($\underline{F} = 5.58$, d.f. = 4/793, $\underline{p} \leq /0002$) between recognition groups with those expecting an increase in salary ($\underline{X} = 3.25$) scoring higher than those receiving a continuing education unit ($\underline{X} = 2.85$).

(d) There were significant differences ($\underline{F} = 4.69$, d.f. = 6/837, $\underline{p} \leq .0001$) among the participant groups with the business managers ($\underline{X} = 3.17$) scoring higher than the nurses ($\underline{X} = 2.87$), the vocational-technical group ($\underline{X} = 2.80$), and the community college group ($\underline{X} = 2.77$).

The benefit "learning about recent knowledge affecting my work" was ranked second and represented an economic benefit of noncredit adult learning. Peterson (1979, p. 429) identifies this benefit with job upgrading and retraining education which may lead to individual economic advancement. Analysis of variance revealed that married males rated this benefit significantly higher than married females and that noncredit learners employed full time were significantly higher than those not employed. In addition, receiving an increase in salary was significantly higher than accruing continuing education units for this benefit.

Third Highest Ranked Benefit: Gaining satisfaction from being involved in self-improvement.

(a) There was a significant difference ($\underline{F} = 2.96$, d.f. = 3/866, $\underline{p} \leq .0314$) between two of the groups on number of noncredit adult learning experiences completed in the last two years with those having 6 or more learning experiences ($\underline{X} = 3.03$) scoring higher than those having 3 or 4 ($\underline{X} = 2.78$).

The third highest ranked benefit "gaining satisfaction from being involved in self-improvement" relates to consumption benefits experienced during one's participation in learning and is a noneconomic benefit to the individual's personal development according to Peterson (1979, p. 429). As indicated the analysis of variance revealed significant differences on this benefit for the number of noncredit adult learning experiences completed in the last two years with those having 6 or more learning experiences being significantly higher than those completing 4 or 5 learning experiences.

Fourth Highest Ranked Benefit: Preparing to handle increased responsibilities which will make my job more important.

(a) There were significant differences (F = 7.90, d.f. = 3/693, p < .0000) among three of the sex/marital groups with married males (X = 3.06) and single males (X= 3.01) scoring higher than married females (X = 2.73).

(b) There was a significant difference (F = 5.61, d.f. = 3/693, p ≤ .0008) between the employment status groups with those having full time employment (X = 2.98) scoring higher than those employed part time (X = 2.68).

(c) There were significant differences (F = 8.94, d.f. = 4/636, p ≤ .0000) among recognition received with those expecting an increase in salary (X = 3.21) and those receiving a certificate (X =3.03) scoring higher than those receiving a continuing education unit (X = 2.74) and those receiving no special recogniton (X = 2.73).

(d) There was a significant difference (F = 3.65, d.f. = 5/672, p < .0029) between groups for length of the learning experience with those having classes of 40-49 hours in length (X =3.20) scoring higher than those having classes of 1-9 hours (X = 2.75).

(e) There were significant differences (F = 6.55, d.f. = 6/690, p ≤ .0000) among the participant groups with adult basic education (X = 3.08) and business managers (X = 3.08) scoring higher than nurses (X = 2.68).

This fourth ranked benefit, "preparing to handle increased responsibilities which will make my job more important," identifies with increased responsibility and status on the job and is an individual economic advancement benefit of noncredit adult learning. Factors found to be significantly different relevant to this benefit included married males and those persons employed full time reporting a significantly higher score than single males, married females, and part time employees. In addition, an increase in salary and receiving a certificate were significantly higher than receiving a continuing education unit or no special recognition for successful completion of the learning experience. Those adult learners reporting more class hours were significantly higher on this benefit than those reporting fewer class hours. Adult basic education and business manger groups were higher on this benefit variable than nurses.

Fifth Highest Ranked Benefit: Improving my interest and/or skill in learning more.

(a) There were significant differences (F = 5.43, d.f. = 3/1023, p ≤ .0011) among three of the sex/marital groups with single males (X = 3.02) and married males (X = 2.94) scoring higher than married females (X = 2.78).

(b) There were significant differences (F = 5.22, d.f. = 4/1019, p ≤ .0004) among four of the age groupings with those under 25 years of age (X = 3.06) scoring higer than those between 25-34 years of age (X = 2.83), those between

35-49 years of age (X = 2.82), and those between 50-64 years of age (X = 2.78).

(c) There was a significant difference (F = 3.99, d.f. = 3/1023, p ≤ .0077) between two of the employment groupings with those employed full time (X = 2.93) scoring higher than those employed part time (X = 2.75).

(d) There was a significant difference (F = 5.45, d.f. = 4/954, p ≤ .0002) between recogniton groups with those receiving a certificate (X = 2.96) scoring higher than those receiving a continuing education unit (X = 2.75).

(e) There were significant differnces (F = 3.70, d.f. = 5/1001, p. < .0025) among groups for length of the learning experience with those having classes of 1-9 hours (X = 2.71) scoring lower than those having classes of 50 or more hours (X = 2.96) and those having classes of 30-39 hours in length (X = 2.95).

"Improving my interest and/or skill in learning more" was ranked fifth and is considered to be a noneconomic benefit. It is associated with improving the adult's capacity for continuous learning and describes an individual and personal development benefit. Analysis of variance resulted in significant differences with single males and married males scoring higher than married females. Younger adults scored significantly higher on this variable than older adults. Full time employees scored higher than part time employees, as did those receiving a certificate opposed to those receiving a continuing education unit. Adults attending noncredit courses for a greater number of hours scored significantly higher than those attending for fewer hours. Adult basic education participants reported this variable to be significantly more beneficial than did business managers and nurses.

Discussion and Conclusions

All seven population groups did benefit from their noncredit adult learning experience and did received both noneconomic and economic benefits from this participation, a finding supportive to the idea that most adult learners have multiple reasons for enrollment in adult education learning experiences, as reported by Tough (1973). The benefits accruing to participants were represenative of Peterson's (1979, pp. 428-429) typology of benefits for lifelong learning and did relate to individual personal development areas representing the academic benefits of general academic education and the capacity for continuous learning. Other noneconomic areas were representative of consumption benefits experienced through the process of learner involvement in noncredit adult learning.

Although the results did not support the idea that the most frequent reason for enrollment in adult education is job related (Cross, 1981) there was agreement on the supportive rationale for enrollment based on such factors as job obsolescence, job competition, and promotional related aspirations. The economic benefits relating to increased responsibility and status were supportive of advancement on-the-job. The benefits accruing to job upgrading and retraining support individual economic advancement according to Peterson (1979).

Review of the findings suggest a more comprehensive approach in providing for the benefits of noncredit learning as suggested by Fitzgerald (1984) and Knowles (1984) wherein provision is made for meeting the learner's most pressing needs of an economic, social, and psychological nature. This research supports the comprehensive approach and suggests that emphasis be given to the development of a capacity for continuous learning which would enhance societal development through increased numbers of lifelong learners and thereby help to provide a society of educated, knowledgeable citizens.

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